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M,DCCC,XII.

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ERRATA in Volume LXVII.

Page 64. l. 4. from bottom, for "affectation," r. "*affectations.*"
66. l. 10. put a comma after 'Gibbon.'
71. Art. X. l. 3. for 'p. 36.' r. p. 386.
83. l. 30. for 'export,' r. *re-export.*
92. l. 6. from bott. for 'protections,' r. *protection.*
106. l. 20. for 'have,' r. *has.*
113. Title, for 'half bound,' r. *boards.*
170. *Note*, l. 18. from bott. the final letter in the 2d and 5th of Arabic words is a *Dal* instead of a *Lam.*
275. l. 15. from bott. for 1752, r. 1572; and four lines lower, *μυλων*, r. *μυλωνα*,
193. *Note*, for 'Borlan,' r. *Borlase.*
264. l. 9. from bott. for 'hendecasyllables,' r. *anapæsts.*
Between pp. 273 and 275, the intermediate page is mis-pri 286. instead of 274.
278. l. 4. for 24. r. 54.
280. l. 19. r. *καταπεπτεομαλος*, in one word.
—— l. 25. for *γυμνιλκυιας*, r. *γυμνιλειας*.
—— l. 26. for 'Plut.' r. *Plat.*
286. *Note* †. l. 11, 12, r. *Hence appears the impropriety of calling*, the contrary assertion being occasioned by the carelessnes transcriber.
331. l. 5. insert a comma after '*functions.*'
387. last line, for 'Weber,' r. *Heber.*
396. l. 25. for 'second,' r. *third.*
436. l. 10. insert a comma after '*sharps.*'

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For JANUARY, 1812.

Art. I. *A View of the present State of Sicily:* its rural Economy, Population, and Produce, particularly in the County of Modica. with an Appendix, containing Observations on its general Character, Climate, Commerce, Resources, &c. From a late Survey of the Abbate Balsamo, Professor of Agriculture and Public Economy at the Royal Academy, Palermo. To which are added, with Notes throughout the Work, an Examination of the Sicilian Volunteer System, and Extracts from Letters written in Sicily in 1809 and 1810. By Thomas Wright Vaughan, Esq. 4to. pp. 360. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Gale and Curtis. 1811.

Nearly six years have now passed since the connection between this kingdom and Sicily has become intimate, and since the preservation of the independence of the Sicilian government has been owing to the assistance of British forces. The residence of a number of our countrymen on the spot, and the importance of the island in the scale of political discussion between France and England, have gradually augmented the interest of the public with respect to it, and have extended an intercourse which, in former years, was limited to transactions of commerce. This increased share of public attention could scarcely fail to catch the observation of those ingenious gentlemen, who find means to extract a living from ministering to the general appetite for novelty, whether their talents are employed in the sprightly vehicles of daily intelligence issuing from the Strand, or in the more patient labours of book-making for the occupants of Pater-noster Row. Mr. Vaughan has obliged us to class him, in the impartial award of literary justice, among authors of the latter description; not so much from deficiency of vigour in those parts of his book which require originality, as from permitting his name to stand in a title-page which may impose on the public a translation and compilation as an original work. The main part of the quarto volume, which is here announced as a 'View of the present state of Sicily,' is merely a translation of the journal of a month's tour, performed some years ago by the Abbate Balsamo, Professor of Agriculture at Palermo. Mr. Vaughan's share of the book does not exceed a fourth part, and consists of an introduction, of observations on the state of the Sicilian volunteers, and of a few letters on the manners of the natives. These, we must confess, are meagre contributions from the pen of one who informs us that he has had 'a long residence in the island, a constant intercourse with the inhabitants, and a personal observation of most parts of the country.' Another singularity in this volume is the caution which Mr. Vaughan considers it as necessary to give us against the very work which he has so laboriously but so indifferently translated. The Abbate, publishing under the eye of the King, cannot, Mr. V. says, be supposed to represent the country in an unfavourable view; so that, to be safe in our conclusions, we shall do well, he adds, to qualify them by consulting the work of Mr. Leckie; a publication which has a tendency the most opposite (as our readers cannot fail to remember [*]) to any thing in the shape of court-flattery.—We shall begin the exercise of our critical functions by some remarks on the Abbate's tour, which was performed, it appears, in company with a personage of consequence, the Knight of Jerusalem, Signor Donato Tommasi.

This companion of the Abbate, being a public officer of government, made it a rule to decline all offers of accommodation from individuals in regard to lodging; a determination which often led to a vehement contest of argument, and subjected the travellers to the necessity of remaining satisfied with very indifferent quarters. Of the uncultivated state of the island, some idea may be formed by the acknowlegement (p. 32.) of tracts of country 'to the extent of ten miles, containing neither farm, inn, nor inhabitant.' The state of agriculture is found to vary considerably in different places, but throughout the island a remarkable contrast exists between the fertility of the soil and the aukwardness of the cultivator. In the neighbourhood of Syracuse, where the growth of hemp is a favourite object of attention, the land is prepared for it by five or six ploughings, when half the number would suffice if the husbandman adopted the simple improvement of a single coulter to his plough. In the vicinity of Catania, one of the least backward districts of Sicily, ten or twelve shillings per acre is accounted a high rent; and the capitals of the farmers are so limited that many are obliged to hire their oxen. They appear to be ignorant that, in the immediate neighbourhood of a great city, pasturage is more lucrative than the growth of corn, and they consequently sow wheat at the very gates of Catania and Palermo. From such agriculturists as these, we cannot expect a judicious course of husbandry; and we find them accordingly engaged (p. 205.)

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[*] See Rev. Vol. lix. N.S. p. 283.

in an unmerciful routine of cropping. Their land is measured by *salms*, each of which contains about five English acres and a half; money-accounts are kept in ounces, taris, and grains, thirty taris making an ounce, and twenty grains a tari:

1 ounce is equal to 12s. 6d. sterling.
1 tari - - 5d.
1 grain - - ¼d.

The reader of Abbate Balsamo's work will often have occasion to remind himself that it is a mere journal, and must reckon on finding in it little more than local description and detail. On arriving at the part (p. 146.) which treats of the county of Modica, we expected, from the particular reference to it in the title-page, to be gratified with more comprehensive views, but in vain; for it may be truly said of the Abbate, as of the Celtic bard, that "one note is struck at the beginning and continued to the end." The utility of such minute descriptions we by no means question in the case of those who possess landed property in the island, or who have an interest in improving its interior administration: but we must repeat that we have strong objections to the attempt to palm this book on the British public as a general view of the state of Sicily. The Abbate's Appendix is the only part that possesses a title to such a character, and it is too short and imperfect to constitute more than a mere sketch.

In connection with agricultural researches, the wages of labour and price of provisions attracted a considerable share of the Abbate's attention. The rates of these by no means approach so nearly to equalization in a rude country like Sicily, as in a state in which long habits of intercourse have diffused a rapidity of communication and facility of conveyance. In one quarter, the Mazzarino, which is situated south-east of the centre of the island, the Abbate found the price of common labour about sixpence a day, exclusive of victuals, which consist of bread and wine; and by the year, about seven pounds sterling, with victuals. Proceeding farther to the south-east, he communicates the prices of commodities at Caltagirone, a city with 20,000 inhabitants; and on comparing the present rates with those of 1792, we find abundant reasons for being satisfied that the enhancement of provisions is not confined to our own country. Veal has risen at Caltagirone in that period from 7d. to 11d. the pound; beef from 5d. to 9d.; mutton from 5d. to 8d.; and cheese from 7d. to 10d.—So materially do prices in Sicily vary according to situation, that, at the small town of Monterosso, a distance of less than thirty miles, the expence of provisions appears to be not much more than a third of the rates at Caltagirone. Moderate, however, as they continue, the ratio of enhancement since former years appears to be the same as in the larger towns.

Next to agricultural and economical details, the progress of population appears to have formed the object of chief interest with the Abbate and his fellow-traveller. The documents quoted, imperfect as they are, seem to imply a regular and considerable increase; (p. 249. and Appendix 21.) liable, however, of late years, to unfortunate interruptions (p. 86.) from the frequent occurrence of bad harvests. On the subject of taxation, we have occasionally animadversions (p. 77. and Appendix 15.) from the Abbate: but his knowlege of the question seems to have led him no farther than to the plain and sound conclusion that all taxation should fall on the consumer.

An Appendix generally conveys the idea of additional papers: but, in this case, it might have been more properly intitled a "Summary of the preceding details of the journal." It contains a warm encomium on the climate of Sicily, as one of the most healthy and pleasant in the world. 'Winter,' says the author, 'is a continued spring; the heats of summer are tempered by the fresh breezes of the sea; and even in July and August, the air is pure and salubrious on the heights and mountains.' The chief drawbacks on this favoured atmosphere consist in the want of rain from May to September, and in the well-known visitations of the Sirocco wind. In addition to the languor which the latter produces on the body, its effects are, in other respects, remarkably baneful. Wine bottled during its prevalence never clears; paint put on is said never to dry; and meat salted at that time infallibly spoils. The Abbate contends, however, most spiritedly against the charge of indolence as an effect of the climate; and he quotes, with no small exultation, the testimony of Cicero to the industry of his countrymen in former days. The topic on which he is most at home, in the Appendix as well as in the Journal, is the state of agriculture, on which he communicates several very proper admonitions. He regrets the miserable system of policy hitherto pursued in this respect, and acknowleges that pasturage, easily as it might be improved, remains in a very backward state. Of few estates in Sicily can he say, as of that of the Prince of Belmonte, that they remind him of the meadows of Lodi in Lombardy, of Leicestershire in England, or of the Pays d'Auge in Normandy. — On the subject of manufactures he is sufficiently enlightened to perceive that monopoly and favour, of whatever kind, are injurious; and that all should be left to the operation of private exertion. In regard to commerce, though his researches are far from profound, he is in some degree aware of the superior amount, in all countries, of foreign over inland trade.

The description of the cities of Syracuse and Catania possessing a claim to more general interest than other parts of the Abbate's journal, we select and lay them before our readers.

'In approaching a city that was formerly a competitor in power and grandeur to Athens, and mistress of the arts and urbanity of Rome itself, the sight of the Obelisk without the town, and the two only remaining mutilated columns of the famous temple of Olympian Jove, present to the mind a thousand ideas and reflections on the history and fate of cities and nations. Upon the wings, it may be said, of imagination, we pass rapidly back through the immense space of more than twenty-five ages, and we already think and speak of Archias, of Thrasybulus, of Dionysius, of Dion, of Timoleon, of Agathocles, of Marcellus. The entrance into Syracuse by four bridges and wet ditches partakes of the grand, and is rendered more noble by the gates on each side, and the four orders of fortification which bring to the recollection the works of Coni, of Alexandria, of Lisle, of Valenciennes, and other celebrated fortifications of Europe. To our mortification, however, we discover that the interior of the town does not correspond with so promising an exterior. The population is scanty, and few signs of opulence, or good houses, or streets; so that it should seem the best sort of eulogium to write this inscription: "*this was the ancient Ortigia.*" The town of Syracuse is considered among the fourth in rank of the cities of Sicily, for excepting Palermo, Messina, and Catania, there are none others that can pretend to class above it.'—'Its circuit, including its vast fortifications, is said to be three miles, and its population is supposed to amount to fourteen thousand inhabitants. They seem to believe there that only an age ago it amounted to forty thousand, and is lessened at least two-thirds of its number. For my own part I should like to enquire into the foundation of such a belief, because neither the situation of the inhabited parts, nor the history of its political state, nor the contemplation of its principal buildings, can induce us to believe such an inconceivable change in so limited period as one hundred years. There are several churches, and houses of gentlemen sufficiently neat; but as to the streets, with the exception of the two principal, they are generally narrow and dirty, and unpleasant; there is nothing that deserves the name of a square, and the market itself would be mean, even among the inconsiderable towns of the island. The great harbour, as every one knows, is capacious, secure, and magnificent, and viewed from the citadel, displays itself to the eye with great beauty and advantage, in the figure of a majestic and noble ellipsis: it wants altogether the best ornament and most significant charm which it ought, and might have, a quantity of vessels, and a considerable trade; and it is disgusting and painful to behold this wonderful bay, which has received from the hand of nature such singular advantages, and might be so prosperous, empty and deserted, without navigation or commerce.'—

'I have heard and read of a thousand projects for giving life and recovery to the forlorn and fallen Syracuse; but the major part

> to the intelligent traveller, which obscure these advantages, and place Catania in the class of cities less advanced in civilization. There are not, for example, more than four or five coffee-houses, and those dirty and ill furnished with the necessary articles. There is not in the town a carriage for hire. Excepting the five principal streets above-mentioned, all the rest are very narrow, without trade or inhabitants, and so many nests of poverty and filth. Almost all the country in the environs of the town is squalid and black, and naked, almost to frighten one. The Marina is narrow, shapeless, and dismal in appearance; and finally, what is scarce to be believed, there is not without the town the length of a furlong of good carriage road.'—'They have lavished, or rather thrown away, immense sums of money in the construction of a mole; but I cannot refrain from hinting the consideration, that the internal commerce of this place is of infinitely more importance than even the external; and it would be more suitable to those engaged in it to think of facilitating the communication to the interior and with other districts of the island, before they take into consideration the means of establishing it with foreign nations at a distance.
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> 'Catania has a rich bishopric; and a numerous clergy; and is only exceeded by Palermo itself in the number of its princes, dukes, marquisses, and other noblemen and gentlemen, who possess large manors and estates.'

After having given an idea of the labours of the Abbate, it is time to take notice of the share which Mr. Vaughan has had in this motley collection. His compositions begin rather abruptly (Appendix, p. 27.) with what he styles 'An examination of the Volunteer System.' The author of this system in Sicily was the Prince of Butera, one of the most affluent noblemen of the island; who had the condescension, as Mr. Vaughan informs us, to explain it to him personally in all its parts. The island was divided into districts, a census of the population was taken, and, out of the whole number, 46,000 men were ordered to embody themselves under the title of volunteers. The measure, however, proved little more than nominal; the government possessing neither the means nor, perhaps, the wish to render the volunteers an efficient force. The cause of this inefficiency arises in no degree, in Mr. Vaughan's opinion, from the disposition of the inhabitants, who are actuated by a strong attachment to our countrymen and a cordial hatred of the French. He recommends the introduction of a certain number of English officers to the command of the natives, and points out the saints' days as the proper times for exercise. He treats the subject with considerable minuteness, and appears to expect that it might be made to lead to essential co-operation on the side of the natives with our troops.—The next part of Mr. Vaughan's contribution to the volume consists in extracts from his private letters, written in Sicily to a friend in England. According to the random manner in which the whole book seems to have been put together, it appears that the publication of these extracts was not determined till the rest of the work was in the press. The readers of the volume, however, will be disposed to regard the letters as the least exceptionable part of the whole; since they contain several amusing descriptions of the manners of the people, and of the striking objects in the island. Of these the following passages may serve as specimens:

'Four hours and a half—for, travelling in Sicily, you never go out of a walk—brought me to Fiume Di Nissi, eighteen miles from Messina; where the muleteer informed me there was an excellent inn. It consists of an immense range of open stalls for the mules, and wretched lofts above, they call rooms. The supper-room you are shewn into, is a division of the stable; with a fire on the ground, or rather bare earth—a bed for the family—some casks full of wine—a pig lately killed, swinging from the rafters—and a table and bench. Upon the ashes they toast you a slice from the pig; with two or three eggs, and a bottle of wine: and that forms your supper. The chamber for sleeping is a wretched-looking garret, with a mattras, *en suite;* shutters, for windows; and a door that won't shut. Were an English lady's maid shewn in to such a place, at the worst inn on the road, she would immediately *swoon.* And take this for a picture of every locanda in Sicily, except in great towns, or the immediate beaten tract from one English post to another.'

'You would be much amused at the fancy dances which are frequent throughout Sicily, particularly at Catania; where the noblesse, who they calculate at three hundred, have a weekly ball, and, by constantly dancing together, have arrived at great perfection in the performance. The figures are ingenious, and certainly, when well danced, a very great improvement of the English country-dance. The mode of building in Sicily is particularly well adapted to display the grand suite of apartments. The doors are opposite to each other, in the centre of the different partitions throughout (originally designed for a free ventilation of the air in the hot months;) so that, upon entering, you have a full view of the whole range of rooms at once, in which there is little furniture, except chairs and tables, or slabs against the wall; as furniture harbours flies and musquitoes (not to mention fleas) with which they are much tormented. The floors are all of a species of glazed tile, resembling coloured porcelain, in the best houses; and in others, the common flat tile or stucco. There are no boarded floors.'—

'Nothing is more annoying to an Englishman, at first, than the total want of ceremony as to times and seasons, of Sicilian visitors. Whether breakfast or dinner, the foreign visitor walks in without feeling *de trop;* and even while you are dressing, if you happen to have a foreign servant, he thinks nothing of the matter—your visitor is let in; who continues to talk, while you continue your operations, till you are perfectly at a stand.—Such is the difference of custom.

'Upon making a visit to any house of distinction, you are, accordingto the etiquette, ushered through the whole suite of apartments, and find the owner, probably, in a small but handsome room at the extremity; perhaps the bed-chamber of the lady of the house, who, if indisposed, receives her visitors in form, upon the bed. In winter, coffee; in summer, iced water is brought in. Upon taking leave, it is usual for the master of the mansion to attend you, and bow you out through the whole suite of these rooms; and it requires a little drilling for strangers to go through the ceremony adroitly.'

Although earthquakes have been often described, we are induced to copy the ensuing account, because it conveys, in a small compass, a striking idea of that awful visitation:

'While the impressions are yet strong upon my recollection of the most horrid visitation to which this earth is exposed, let me endeavour to give you some idea of an earthquake.—I had lately changed my place of abode in Messina, to the upper suite of rooms (which is preferred, from better air in the summer) in the Palazzo Di Stagno*; and which, however grand it may sound, as being a palace, is now an usual quarter for English residents. The rooms are very spacious, and high from the ground;—which I mention chiefly to shew, that probably we felt the effects of the shock in all its fulness; since tall and large houses, from their height and length of beam, are supposed to rock more, and be less safe, than the lower and more compact.—I had returned from dinner about eight in the evening; Mrs. ——— was working in the principal room, where my two little girls (being hitherto unsettled) were sleeping upon a sofa. I was pacing up and down the room, sometimes in conversation, and at the moment in a deep reverie. On a sudden a new and extraordinary noise assailed my ears, which in the first hasty impression of it seeming like the trampling or jumping of a number of people at once over my head, or rather all around me, I exclaimed with surprise, "Are these people mad?"—While the words were yet upon my lips, a magical concussion, with a hollow and terrible sound, shook the whole fabric to its very foundations. The doors burst open; the windows rattled in their frames; the lights tottered upon the table; and the instant conviction of what it was, flashed upon the mind; but what words can convey an idea of the vital damp that strikes, with that conviction, upon the heart!——In an instant, Mrs. ——— sprang from her seat, with, "Oh, my God, an earthquake!"—I ran, I knew not how, to seize my children, and flew with them to the window, as I called out aloud, "To the window!" (For under the arches of windows and doors, and where the firmness of thick walls may afford shelter from the mass that falls in from above, in serious earthquakes, the only safety is supposed to be found).—By the time we got there, all was still.—An awful settled silence followed the fearful noise, more resembling the crushing sound of a fire-engine passing under an arch, but muffled and dull, than any thing I know to compare it to.—My Italian servant, followed by the women, presently appeared, "pale as their smock;" and our neighbour the Duchessa sent up, to know how

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'* In Messina, the different stories are inhabited by different families — the stables and coach-houses, or shops, on the ground-floor.'

we did, telling us, that below, the shock was so violent, a lamp had fallen from her table;—but they never fail to exaggerate the effects in each particular house. By this time the bells in the monasteries had began to ring, and the people to flock out and run to their churches, together with all the usual consequences of dismay at a smart shock of an earthquake; the first of which is, to desert their habitations and assemble in the open squares, awaiting the event of a second, which is most to be dreaded, in trembling and prayer. None happened this night, at least sensibly to us; for it happened that a few days before I had taken a small casino, or country-house, a mile from the town, for the benefit of sea-bathing. To resolve upon it at once, to crowd into the carriage, and set forth for this place, was the work of a moment; and while the bells of alarm yet tinkled in our ears, we left the town, all in uproar; and for that night at least, however figuratively a cottage may in general be coupled with happiness, it afforded us more reality of comfort than a palace. With the first tremulous dawning of light I was at my window. All was calm and silent—not a breath, not a murmur interrupted the tranquillity of that charming scene. This was not called a very severe shock. In serious ones, such as took place in the 16th century, they are dreadful indeed, and in 1693 it was most horrible as well as fatal. In the month of January the earth shook four minutes, and buried in ruins almost all the towns on the east side the island. Half the inhabitants of Syracuse, Augusta, and Catania were destroyed. It was calculated that 60,000 persons lost their lives upon that occasion.'—

'The last shock I felt was in May 1810, at twelve at night. It was slight. Upon going into the town, however, I found the inhabitants assembled in the squares, the ladies sitting quietly in their carriages, awaiting a second. In very slight shocks, they are very little alarmed: upon the present occasion, approaching a carriage, to condole with a lady, with "Is it not shocking?" I was answered, "It is indeed very shocking—*You were not at the Opera.*"

Such passages as these are calculated to give Mr. Vaughan's readers a more favourable idea of his powers than his hasty and inaccurate labours as a translator would excite. Among the other topics discussed in his letters, is the danger (p. 60.) to which the southern coast of Sicily remains exposed from the incursions of Barbary pirates; and a reprobation of the base practice of assassination, which is still common (p. 75.) among the Sicilians. In describing the ruins of Agrigentum, (Girgenti,) of which the population is now only 14,000, he enlarges, with great animation, on the beautiful symmetry of the Temple of Concord. The order is Doric, like that of all the temples in the neighbourhood; no building can convey a more complete idea of proportion; and its lightness and grandeur are equal to the fairest picture that imagination can conceive. At no great distance stands the Temple of Juno, of somewhat larger dimensions, but not quite so perfect. The temple of Jupiter Olympus is the largest of all, but so completely in ruin as to suggest strong doubts whether it ever was finished. Among the remarkable exaggerations of antiquity, may be classed the current opinion that Agrigentum possessed a population of 800,000; a number nearly equal to half of the present inhabitants of the island.

The introduction to this volume, which, as well as the letters, proceeds from the pen of Mr. Vaughan, contains, in a somewhat graver style, observations of similar import on the character of the Sicilians. In adverting to their slow process in improvement, considerable stress is laid on the uncertainty under which the inhabitants have remained with regard to the continuance of their present political situation. Notwithstanding their respect for the British army, a general apprehension prevailed till of late that the means of defence would prove inadequate whenever Bonaparte should plan a serious attack. It is to this temporary feeling, and not to inherent indolence, that Mr. Vaughan is desirous of ascribing the present inertness of the Sicilians; who, he maintains, are not only highly temperate, but possessed of considerable intelligence and industry. The Englishman (he adds) who, in walking abroad in the middle of the day, finds the shops shut and the people asleep, must not suppose that they are indolent and listless, since they universally rise with the sun, and will work, if necessary, half the night. A hatred of the French exists among every class, but is more particularly conspicuous in the peasantry. The remembrance of the Sicilian Vespers, in which every Frenchman in the island was assassinated, remains fresh in their recollection, after the lapse of five centuries, and was revived by a recent massacre, happily of less extent but equally shocking in its circumstances; — we allude to the catastrophe at the town of Augusta in the year 1800, in which 300 French invalids were sacrificed. In the attempt of last summer by Murat, the peasantry, though rudely armed, came forwards to take an active share in the defence: but the inhabitants of the towns were not equally on the alert.—The disaffection of the Sicilians to their present sovereigns, and the question of supporting them in their demands of reform, are points scarcely touched by Mr. Vaughan; and still less by the Abbate Balsamo, who professes himself the warm panegyrist of His Sicilian Majesty. It appears, however, that the only military force of the court consists of 8000 Neapolitans; and that they are carefully stationed at the royal residence of Palermo, instead of standing in the front of battle at Messina. These two cities are by much the largest in the island; Messina containing 80,000 inhabitants; and Palermo, or, as the Abbate calls it, 'the great, the rich, the salubrious Palermo,' having a population of 150,000.

We shall conclude our extracts from Mr. Vaughan's epistolary compositions with his account of the restraints on the Sicilian press, and his directions to those of his countrymen who propose going to that island:

'At two o'clock I arrived at Caltagirone, which is a large and fine town, of 20,000 inhabitants: upon my arrival in the market-place I was surrounded by a crowd, with cries of—"*Viva l'Inglese,*"—all anxious to hear the news from the coast, at this interesting period—for it is inconceivable how little intercourse of information there is to the inland towns of Sicily, that are not immediately in the high road from the capital to Messina, &c. I conceive there is the same sort of information of what is doing at Petersburg, in the deserts of Siberia—that is to say, by the arrival of a traveller, who says what he pleases. They absolutely know nothing —— there are no newspapers published in Sicily, where the press is severely restricted, except the "Gazetta" of Palermo, which has only a few extracts from foreign papers, and no domestic news whatever, except the arrival and departure of the royal family; and the "Gazetta Britannica," established lately at Messina, since the English have been there, which of course only gives military and circumscribed details.'

'You ask me for memoranda of what travellers to Sicily, particularly as residents, ought to take with them.

'All that relates to their *personal* comforts of every description, and dress, both for ladies and gentlemen —except silks— they are cheaper and excellent; and ladies shoes and gloves, which are made from English patterns, both cheaper and good.

'All that relates to the table, linen, china, glass, &c. most certainly, not only for the comfort of them while there, but, upon returning to England, so far from losing any thing by them, they will sell for from 50 to 100 per cent. (supposing the island to remain as it does) more than they cost — consequently they cost near 100 per cent. more to purchase.

'All household furniture that can be conveniently carried (for the reason above mentioned,) except beds, chairs, and Turkey carpets; the latter are got from Malta (from Smyrna) cheaper and handsome; chairs of the country are four or five shillings, and the bedsteads in use are uniformly iron—feather beds never: therefore mattrasses may be taken, although they are made most excellently in the country—the Sicilians use nothing else.' ——

'For servants—personal and tried servants of course are necessary and useful in all countries; but it is of infinite importance to have at least one who can speak the language, and is used to the country—a cook must by no means be taken. There is no female cook throughout the country—and the method of cooking, the materials, and whole style of the kitchen, are totally different —— what can an English cook do where the kitchen is at the top of the house; and no kitchen fire, for it is all charcoal and stoves; no *suet*, &c.? The English housekeeper is also completely *posed* — neither milk, nor cream, nor butter for pastry—nor a stock kept of any thing; for the man-cook (and one will present himself immediately on landing) goes to market and purchases every day "for the evil thereof," and no more—and so on again.—So that you have in one view the whole of your expenses day after day, that is, if you choose to look at your bills—but it is in the cook's bills that you are most dreadfully plundered, and for which there is scarce any remedy — and that is your chief head of expense. The art of cookery itself throughout Italy (and perhaps the Neapolitan stands next to the French,) is held in high estimation, as well as in Sicily, where the cooks amongst themselves are called by much higher titles than we are accustomed to hear of. The great man himself is styled a professor, and the *youths* who attend upon him (answering to our cook's maid), are all *Adjutantes*. Nevertheless the style of their cookery is exceedingly unpalatable to the English country gentlemen at first, who have been accustomed at home to good roast and boiled. All is stewed and compounded—no wholesome-looking English brown.' —

'Upon the whole we may say, the fewer English servants the better. They are, in fact, helpless as the family is itself at first, and extremely expensive, if they happen to dislike it and think fit to come home. The wages for Sicilian servants are; for a good cook about fifteen dollars a month (or three pounds fifteen shillings,) a tolerable man-servant, who clothes himself, about ten or twelve (or three pounds;) a female servant, four dollars a month (or one pound.) I speak of Messina, where every thing is doubled, as is unfortunately the case wherever the English reside abroad: in other parts of the country, and amongst the natives, it may be taken at about half. All these payments are made by the month, as well as rent for your house, and a month in advance. Take a cow if you can, both for comfort on ship-board and use when you get there.'

In summing up the evidence for a critical verdict on the volume before us, our attention is naturally directed to two parties, the Abbate and Mr. Vaughan. The former should be considered as a servant of the crown, and accordingly not likely to come boldly forwards and "instruct his monarch where his error lies." Though his anticipations are sometimes sanguine, we deem it less necessary to caution our readers on that score, than on his silence in regard to those abuses in the system of government, which constitute the fundamental cause of the evils of Sicily. It is proper, also, to keep in mind that both the style and the matter of his journal bear the marks of haste. In one of his grandest effusions, indeed, — we mean that in which (p. 195. and 223.) he exclaims on the beauty of the plain of Catania, and calls it the antient Campi Leontini, —he is contradicted, *ore rotundo*, by his translator. Mr. Vaughan writes (p. 224.) a long note to shew that the plain of Catania, at certain seasons of the year, is very far from being intitled to the Abbate's eulogium; and that the real site of the Campi Leontini was to the southward, in a tract of land which, though now totally neglected, continues to bear evident marks of former fertility. Making these deductions from the Professor's accuracy, and pronouncing that his journal is devoid of interest to general readers, we have pleasure in stating, on the other hand, that his views are always benevolent; and that his information, even in regard to foreign countries, qualifies him to rank in a respectable class. — Of Mr. Vaughan we have little to add to what has been already mentioned of his performance, both as a writer and an editor. He has prefixed to his book a good map, and a clear table of contents; and had he confined the printed matter to his own compositions, and to extracts from select passages of the Abbate's journal, he would have given to the public a much more acceptable book in half the size. Our chief objections to his notes and letters regard the introduction of common-place quotations; and we must not omit to notice, both in his and in the Abbate's part of the book, a superabundance of typographical errors. The Abbate's tour, for example, is said in one passage (Introduction, p.2.) to have taken place in 'May 1808;' and in another (beginning of Chapter 1.) in 'May 1809.' In one place (p. 180.) we have 'render' for 'rendering;' and in another, (p. 249.) '6 or 7 oz.' for what should probably be 600 or 700 oz. Mr. Vaughan animadverts rather pointedly (p. 224.) on the quaint and incorrect expressions of his friend, the Abbate: but what has he to say, in his own behalf, for such elegancies as (App. p. 66.) 'tall houses;' or (p. 78.) 'a robustious landlady?' His whole composition, indeed, is remarkably inelegant and incorrect.

ART. II. *Magna Britannia*; being a concise Topographical Account of the several Counties of Great Britain. By the Rev. Daniel Lysons, A. M. F.R.S. F.A. and L.S. Rector of Rodmarton in Gloucestershire; and Samuel Lysons, Esq. F.R.S. and F.A.S. Keeper of His Majesty's Records in the Tower of London. Vol. II. Part 1. containing Cambridgeshire, and Part 2. containing Cheshire. 4to. pp. 889. 5l. 15s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1810.

THE first volume of this elaborate work was introduced to our readers, with general commendation, in M. R. Vol. 53. N.S. p. 370. With regard to its design, however, we have heard it remarked by some persons who have paid attention to general topography, that the plan was not particularly happy, because in the present era the subject is become so extended, and the materials so copious, that it is scarcely possible for any individuals, however industrious and experienced, to do justice to such an undertaking. When the study of topography was in its infancy, they have said, all that was interesting might well be contained in a narrow compass; the celebrated Camden acquired great reputation by writing a moderate-sized volume of this description; and as farther information was obtained, considerable additions were made, and at length a voluminous edition was published by that industrious antiquary, Mr. Gough. Here then, it has been observed, all general publications of the kind might have ceased; since, as knowlege grew more diffused, and new sources of information opened, the topography of single counties was recorded by separate writers; and it could not be supposed that individuals, strangers to the district, would undertake what had already been treated by those who were long resident on the spot. The objection certainly is not without reason: yet we before thought, and still think, that it is possible for persons of talent and industry, by minute researches, to supply information in cases in which former accounts are defective; and, by the exercise of their judgment, to condense those details which had grown tedious and prolix. We are of opinion, therefore, that such a work as the present, proceeding from such competent hands, may be of no small utility, and that its appearance may be hailed by the public with considerable satisfaction.

In our former article, we mentioned that this account of the provinces proceeded alphabetically; and we then were, as we now are, at a loss to conceive why that mode was adopted, since no advantage seems to be derived from it, and the compilers are in consequence liable to considerable inconvenience. When the information is contained in one or a small number of volumes, as in Camden's book, and those of his successors, such a mode was eligible because it facilitated reference: but in this work, which will extend to a great length, such a method is useless. Almost the only semblance of benefit, that readers derive from this mode, is that they know before-hand which county is to be next described; whereas the compilers bind themselves to proceed in it, whether the materials for the county that comes in its turn be all collected or not. Indeed, this evil has been already felt; for it is announced that an Appendix to the first volume, containing additions and corrections, and several supplementary plates, is in forwardness.

While we were perusing the first volume, we could not help perceiving another disadvantage to which the compilers were exposed; viz. that they designed to bring their accounts within an equal compass; though several of the counties, being of much greater extent and importance than others, would necessarily (if justice were done to them) require much greater detail of information. Of this objection, also, the compilers soon became seriously aware, and in the volume before us were induced to issue the account of Cambridgeshire separately, as soon as it was printed, without waiting to complete it with Cheshire and Cornwall, as they had intended; and they were so convinced that the publication of the reports of the counties singly would, in several respects, be the more eligible mode, that they now propose to adopt it through the remainder of the work. Moreover, the materials for Cheshire being numerous, they found themselves, contrary to the original plan, under the necessity of extending the account so as to close the volume without proceeding to Cornwall. By way of apology, they say 'that they flatter themselves that when its importance is considered, it will not be thought that a greater portion of space has been allotted to the subject than it is intitled to.'

With respect to ourselves, we feel disposed to commend this deviation; and had the alteration from the original plan been adopted still earlier, the accounts of some of the preceding counties would have been more complete. We likewise think that the compilers might as well deviate from the alphabetical mode of proceeding, and publish the account of the several counties with separate pages, in the order most convenient to themselves; since by this method they will be able to go on with less liability of interruption, and the purchaser may afterward arrange the parts according to the letters of the alphabet, or in any other way which he may deem best.

The volume before us is undoubtedly very creditable to the industry and exertions of Messrs. Lysons; the various articles of information being numerous, and the particulars under each being both interesting and important. We cannot, however, say that we judge so favourably of the arrangement, which appears to us confused and unnatural. The several heads of information in the account of Cambridgeshire constitute the following list; which we present to our readers to give them some idea of the contents of the work, and also to enable them to form a judgment for themselves with respect to the order in which the particulars are disposed.

'Ancient Inhabitants and Government. Historical Events. Ancient and Modern Division of the County. Ecclesiastical Divisions and Jurisdiction. Monasteries, Colleges, and Hospitals. Market Towns, &c. Population. Principal Land-owners at various Periods, and principal extinct Families. Nobility of the County, and Places which have given Title to any Branch of the Peerage. Noblemen's Seats. Baronets, extinct and existing. Principal Gentry, and their Seats. Geographical and Geological Description of the County. Produce. Natural History. Rivers and Navigable Canals. Roads. Manufactures. Antiquities. British and Roman

Roads, and Stations. Ancient Church Architecture. Ancient Painted Glass. Roodlofts, Screens, &c. Fonts. Stone Stalls and Piscinæ. Ancient Sepulchral Monuments. Monastic Remains. Castles and Sites of Castles. Ancient Mansion-Houses. Crosses. Camps and Earth-works. Miscellaneous Antiquities. Parochial Topography.'

In this arrangement, the articles relative to antient and modern subjects, and the military, civil, and ecclesiastical departments, are mixed together in a manner which we should not have expected from gentlemen who have had considerable experience in compilations of the kind. That the arrangement, however, has been deliberately adopted, and is intended to be followed through the remainder of the work, may be inferred from the same being observed in the account of Cheshire: with the additional heads of Seats of Baronets; Antient Families, extinct and existing; Gentlemen's Seats; Rare Plants; Mineral Springs; Roman Antiquities; and peculiar Customs.

It strikes us that, if the disposition of the subjects were in the following or some such order, the volumes would be perused with greater interest; and we therefore recommend it to the consideration of the compilers: 1. Etymology of the present name, and Antient Geography of the County, including its ancient names, and that of the district to which it belonged. 2. Military History. 3. Civil History, comprehending the several changes which the province may have undergone with respect to its jurisdiction and government. 4. History of the several principal Families, and descent of Property. 5. Modern Geography of the County. 6. Market-Towns. 7. Population. 8. Rivers and Navigable Canals. 9. Roads. 10. Manufactures. 11. Geological Description and Produce of the County. 12. Natural History, comprehending rare Plants and Mineral Springs, &c. 13. Present Nobility, Baronets, and Gentry, with their Seats. 14. Ecclesiastical Divisions and Jurisdiction. 15. Antiquities, military, civil, and ecclesiastical. 16. Customs. 17. Parochial Topography.

Of the several divisions of the work, that of Parochial Topography occupies by far the greater share, and contains a separate description of every individual parish, arranged in alphabetical order. The information presented to the reader under this head is such as could not well be given in the general description of the County; comprehending particulars of the situation of each Parish with respect to the Hundred and Deanery in which it is placed, and of its distance and bearing relatively to the principal towns that are nearest to it; also an account of its manors, with the descent of them, and other landed property; military history; account of the church, and patronage of the beneficial charity-schools, hospitals, &c.

Directing our attention to the account of Cambridgeshire, in the first instance, we must observe that the first section, intitled 'Antient Inhabitants,' would have been more appropriately called Antient Geography; while the information belonging to the part of it which is called *Government*, because referring to the present era, would come in more appropriately in some subsequent portion of the account. The section of Historical Courts contains a concise military history of the county; in which the keeping possession of the Isle of Ely, for a considerable time, after the rest of England had submitted to William the Conqueror, forms a prominent feature. We must here commend the method adopted by the compilers of citing their authorities for the facts that are related; a mode which cannot be too carefully followed, and of which the neglect by some county-historians has considerably diminished the value of their works. It would be farther desirable if the page of the book cited were specified in every instance.

In the Antient and Modern Division of the County, we meet with the antient names of the several Hundreds and Manors taken out of Domesday Book, with the modern names answering to them as far as they could be ascertained.—In the section of Ecclesiastical Division and Jurisdiction, it is related that the county of Cambridge was formerly part of the diocese of Lincoln: but that the Abbots of Ely always claimed an independent jurisdiction within the limits of their own isle; and also that in the year 1108, a bishopric was founded at Ely, and the whole of the county of Cambridge, with the exception of a few parishes, was added to the Isle of Ely, in order to constitute a new diocese. — Under the head of Principal Gentry and their Seats, the remarkable circumstance is stated, that, to the best of the knowlege of the compilers, not one family out of a list of 235 recorded in the year 1433 is now resident in the county; and the present seats of gentlemen are stated to be only 34. — The section of British and Roman Roads and Stations was communicated to the compilers by the Bishop of Cloyne, and is an interesting article on that subject. — Under the title of Antient Church-Architecture, we are presented with the following information:

> 'No county in England produces a richer display of ancient church-architecture than Cambridgeshire; since Ely cathedral alone furnishes a pretty complete series of the styles which prevailed from the eleventh century to the sixteenth. The first examples we shall produce are of that species of architecture, generally known in this country by the

name of *Saxon*, which is the same that prevailed throughout Europe, after the decline of the Roman Empire; and which is in fact nothing more than *Roman* in a degenerated state, and enriched with a great variety of grotesque and irregular ornaments. Of this mode of building, which with some variation in the magnitude of the edifices, and in their decorations, prevailed in England from the seventh century to the twelfth, a very curious example, and unquestionably one of the oldest in the kingdom, occurs in the remains of the conventual church at Ely; the greatest part of which still exists, though filled up with the prebendal houses. This building is undoubtedly of as early a date as the reign of king Edgar, in the tenth century; and indeed there is reason to suppose, that at least some parts of it are remains of the original edifice, erected by St. Etheldreda the foundress of the monastery, in the latter part of the seventh century. This church was an oblong building consisting of a nave and choir, both of them with side aisles, from which they were separated by round and octagonal pillars alternately placed, and circular arches. The east end of the building is supposed to have been originally semicircular; but a chapel appears to have been afterwards added there, which is now converted into a house for one of the prebendaries.'

Besides the Conventual Church of Ely, several other churches in the county, which have specimens of Saxon architecture, are mentioned; and the objects worthy of notice in them are described. With respect, also, to the style of building which succeeded this mode, we are informed that

'There are some examples in this county of the pointed arch, enriched with the chevron and other Saxon mouldings, which style may be considered as the immediate forerunner of the Gothic; the most remarkable of these are to be seen in Soham church, and in the south door-way of St. Giles's in Cambridge, which has a sharply pointed arch, much enriched, under a very high and sharply pointed pediment: and in St. Mary's church at Ely, the north and south door-ways of which have pointed arches, enriched with chevron and other Saxon mouldings; those in the south door-way seem to have been taken from the ruins of the conventual church; the pillars of these door-ways are slender, with foliated capitals.

'The next examples of ancient church architecture, which we shall produce, are some of the earliest of that style generally known throughout Europe by the name of *Gothic*. A great variety of conjectures have been made by ingenious men, respecting the origin of this kind of architecture; the best opinion seems to be, that one of its most prominent features, the pointed arch, arose from the intersection of two circular ones, which so frequently occurs in churches, erected in the twelfth century, in different parts of Europe *; towards the close of that century, the pointed arch appears to have been

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'* It is to be seen in the west front of two very ancient churches at Palermo and Placentia, erected in the early part of the twelfth century.'

much used in Italy, but it was soon abandoned on the revival of the Grecian architecture. In England, France, Germany, and Spain, the Gothic architecture continued much longer, and was no where more generally used, nor perhaps exhibited so great a variety of elegant ornaments or such just proportions as in this country, though in point of magnitude and splendid decoration, our cathedrals must be allowed to be inferior to several of the same kind on the continent *.

'Since Cambridgeshire affords such a series of the different styles of this light and elegant kind of architecture, so peculiarly appropriate to religious edifices, we propose in the annexed plates to exhibit specimens of them, taken chiefly from Ely cathedral and King's college chapel; and have classed them in centuries, conceiving that to be the most convenient, and best mode of arrangement; for though it may happen, that the style of one century should sometimes run into the next, yet there has been always one mode sufficiently prevalent in each, to be considered as appropriate to that century.'

On the whole, this is an interesting article; and it is proper to add that, agreeably to what is proposed, the description of the most prominent features of ecclesiastical architecture used in the earlier periods, and in the 13th, 14th, and 15th centuries, is particularly inserted under the head of the century to which they belonged, and specimens by way of explanation are given in plates annexed.—The subject of Antient Sepulchral Monuments is also treated in the same manner, according to the centuries in which they were erected, and engraved specimens are subjoined.

The section of Parochial Topography being extended to a considerable length, the compilers have stated the sources whence they derived their information; and after having mentioned the several printed works and MS. collections relating to the county, they thus proceed:

'In the following brief parochial account, we have amply availed ourselves of Layer's collections, in the hundreds of which they treat, as will be seen by our references, interspersing such additional information as we have procured from public records, and from two valuable MS. volumes, obligingly lent us by Marmaduke Dayrell, Esq. of Shudy-Camps: these volumes, duplicates of which are in Trinity college library, contain, besides a transcript of the hundred rolls in the Tower, copies of the *Nomina Villarum*, and the escheat rolls for Cambridgeshire: they are the more valuable, because the original of the *Nomina Villarum*, which was in the Lord Treasurer's Remembrancer's office, has been lost more than fifty years; and the escheat rolls are not at present in such a state of arrangement as to be accessible. The contents of these rolls have supplied additional information in many instances where Mr. Layer's collections have appeared

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'* As those of Strasburg, Amiens, Rheims, Milan, Burgos, and Toledo.'

deficient, and in those parishes of which he has not treated, have afforded still more essential service.

'Whatever we could obtain from records, we have availed ourselves of; where we have not had an opportunity of access to the originals, we have quoted such abstracts as are to be found in public libraries. The abstracts of the inquisitions, *post mortem*, among the records of chancery, made by Mr. Thomas Cole, and now deposited in the British Museum, will be found frequently quoted under the name of Cole's escheats. The extensive collections relating to Cambridgeshire, by the Rev. William Cole, in the same valuable repository, have been looked over, and are occasionally, but not very frequently referred to; as we have preferred quoting the originals of the very numerous records and other MSS. which he had copied with such indefatigable industry. The more modern part of our account of the respective parishes has been collected from personal observation and inquiry, aided by various information respecting local circumstances, communicated by the clergy, and other obliging correspondents.

'In our brief accounts of the several colleges in Cambridge, we have taken the history of their foundation, &c. from Parker and Fuller; their constitution and present state, from the last edition of the University Callendar; and, in most instances, either the master or some intelligent person in each college has kindly undertaken to revise and correct them.'

Under the parochial topography, we find, in its turn according to its initial letter in the alphabet, a particular account of the University and town of Cambridge; and the articles, although concise, are comprehensive, and contain a good portion of information in a little compass. To give our readers an idea of the work in this department, we present them with the account of *Peter-House;* premising that we have chosen it because it is the first in order, is of a moderate length, and, according to its size, is a tolerably fair specimen of the others:

'The first endowed college at Cambridge was *Peter-House*, founded in 1257 by Hugh de Balsham, then sub-prior, afterwards Bishop of Ely, who having purchased two hostels belonging to the jesuits, and the friars of Penance, united them, and appropriated the building for the residence of students; but it was not till 1280, after his promotion to the see, that he endowed the college with revenues for the support of a master, 14 fellows, two bible-clerks, and eight poor scholars. After his death, a new college was built on the site of the new hostels, for which purpose the bishop gave, by will, the sum of 300 marks; he gave them also the church of St. Peter. Among the principal benefactors in subsequent times were Simon Langham, Bishop of Ely, who gave the rectory of Cherry-Hinton; bishop Montacute, who appropriated the church of Triplow, and gave the manor of Chewell in Haddenham; Margaret Lady Ramsay, who founded two fellowships and two scholarships, and gave two advowsons; and Dr. Hale, one of the masters, who gave the sum of 7000l., and two rectories. There are now fourteen fellowships on the old foundation; seven of the fellows must be from the northern, and seven from the southern, part of the kingdom, and only two from any county, excepting Cambridge and Middlesex, from each of which four natives are eligible. Besides these, there are eight fellowships, called bye-fellowships, the election to which is open, but the fellows have no vote, nor are they entitled to any office or preferment in the society. The present number of scholars is 48; the stipends are small; a few of them are in the patronage of Lord Melbourne, a preference being given to persons educated at Hertford school. There are ten livings in the gift of this society, two of which are in Cambridgeshire, one in Huntingdonshire, one in Leicestershire, one in Rutlandshire, one in Somersetshire, and four in Suffolk, besides the rectory of Knapton in Norfolk, of which the master has the alternate presentation: Triplow, which was given by Bishop Montacute, and is enumerated by Fuller amongst the livings in the gift of this college, is now in the patronage of the Bishop of Ely, who is visitor.

'Among the eminent persons who have been members or masters of this society, are Cardinal Beaufort, Archbishop Whitgift, Andrew Perne Dean of Ely, Moryson the traveller, Crashawe the poet, Bryan Walton editor of the Polyglot Bible, Dr. Sherlock Dean of St. Paul's, Sir Samuel Garth, the learned Jeremiah Markland, and Gray the poet.

'This college, which stands on the west side of Trumpington-street, consists of two courts; the larger of which, being 144 feet by 84, has been cased with stone; the north side of the lesser court has a modern front; the chapel, which stands in this court was built by subscription in the year 1632; in the east window is a painting on glass of the crucifixion. On the north wall is the momument of Dr. Joseph Beaumont, master of the college, a learned divine, who died in 1699; on the opposite side that of Samuel Horne, a fellow, who died in 1634. On the floor are memorials for Dr. Bernard Hale, master, who died in 1663; Dr. Thomas Richardson, master, 1733; Dr. John Whalley, master, 1748; and Charles Beaumont, fellow, a great benefactor to the buildings, who died in 1726. The master's lodge is a detached building, on the opposite side of Trumpington-street.'

On the subject of Downing College, lately founded, we meet with these particulars:

'The foundation of *Downing College*, not yet built, received the sanction of the royal charter, in the year 1800, after many years litigation with the heirs at law of the founder, Sir George Downing, Bart., who, by his will, bearing date 1717, bequeathed all his valuable estates in the counties of Cambridge, Bedford, and Suffolk, in trust for that purpose, provided that such of his relations as he had left the reversion of them to, in succession, should die without issue. Sir Jacob Garratt Downing, the last of his relations, who had any claim under his will, died without issue in 1764. The college is intended to consist of a master, two professors, one of law, the other of medicine, and 16 fellows. The master, professors, and three fellows only, were appointed by the charter: the other fellowships are to be filled up by the King's sign manual, after the college shall be built.

> The future masters are to be elected by the two Archbishops and the masters of St. John's College and Clare Hall, out of those who shall be, or have been, professors or fellows of the college. The professors are to be elected by the same persons, together with the master of Downing College. The annual salary of the master is 600l.; that of the professors 200l. each; and of the fellows 100l. each. The fellowships are to be held only for 12 years, unless by particular dispensation.
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> 'A spot of ground had been for some time fixed on and marked out for the site of the college, in the fields called the Lease, opposite the beast-market, and some plantations made; the first stone of the building was laid with much solemnity on the 18th of May 1807; and the work is now proceeding from the designs, and under the direction, of Mr. Wilkins, junior.'

Among the anecdotes of the parish of Willingham, we meet with this extraordinary account:

> 'This parish was the birth-place of Thomas Hall, who, having attained almost to the height and proportions of manhood, died at the age of five years and ten months, on the 3d of September 1747. An account of this extraordinary boy was published in a pamphlet, called *Prodigium Willinghamense*, by Mr. Dawkes, a surgeon. Some particulars concerning him had been communicated, in 1744, to the Royal Society by Mr. Almond, of Willingham, and were published in the Philosophical Transactions; his age was then two years, and ten months; he had attained the height of three feet eight inches and a half, and was large in proportion. Mr. Almond states that he was so strong, as to be able to throw from his hand a blacksmith's hammer of seventeen pounds weight: his voice was a deep bass; he had the marks of puberty, and whiskers on his upper lip; at this time he was carried about as a show: it appears from Mr. Dawkes's pamphlet, that this boy grew at the rate of an inch a month, until the end of March 1745; in the next thirteen months he grew only five inches; in November 1746, his height was four feet five inches and five-tenths; the length of his foot was eight inches, and the calf of his leg ten inches six-tenths in circumference; he then weighed eighty-five pounds, or six stone and one pound. He was buried at the church-yard in Willingham, where it was intended that a tombstone should have been erected to his memory, but it does not appear that it was ever put in execution: an epitaph designed for it, written in Latin and English by Mr. Dawkes, is printed at the end of his pamphlet.'

The number of parishes in the county of Cambridge is 165, and each of them is particularly but concisely described.

The history of the county of Chester is written on the same plan with that of the before-mentioned, but, for the reasons which have been already stated, is extended to nearly double the length of the other. It commences with the following particulars:

> 'This county takes its name (which is an abbreviation of Chester-shire, formerly written *Ceastre-Scyre*,) from the ancient city of Chester.

In the earlier periods of our history, Cheshire formed part of the territories of a British tribe, called the *Cornavii*. When the Romans, after their invasion of Britain, divided it into two great districts, this county was included in *Britannia Superior:* the kingdom being afterwards subdivided into smaller provinces, it became part of *Flavia Cæsariensis*. After the departure of the Romans, Cheshire was repossessed by the Britons, and excepting a temporary occupation of it by Ethelfrid, King of Northumberland, appears to have escaped the Saxon yoke till the year 828, when it was conquered by Egbert, under whom the Saxon heptarchy was united. After this it is probable that it formed part of the dominions of the last Mercian kings, who were tributary to Egbert, and his successors: it is certain that upon the division of England into three great districts by Alfred, Cheshire was included in the one called *Mercen-lage*, or the Mercian Jurisdiction, and in the reign of that monarch, and his son, Edward the Elder, it was successively governed by Ethelred, Duke of Mercia, and his widow Ethelfleda, Alfred's daughter. Although the petition of the men of Cheshire to King Henry VI., in 1450, intimates as much, it does not appear, from any other records, that the succeeding Dukes or Earls of Mercia, or of Chester, who governed this county under the Saxon and Danish monarchs before the conquest, were invested with larger powers than other governors of provinces; and it seems sufficiently evident, that it was not till the reign of William the Conqueror, that Cheshire obtained the privileges of a county palatine; that monarch having granted to his nephew, Hugh de Auranches, commonly called Hugh Lupus, the whole county of Chester to hold as freely by the sword, as he himself held the kingdom of England by the crown. In consequence of this extensive grant, the Earl had his barons, one of whom was hereditary constable, and another hereditary steward; assembled parliaments; established his courts of law, and exercised almost every act of regal authority: his descendants continued to enjoy this sovereignty till the death of John, Earl of Chester, in 1237; who leaving no male issue, King Henry III. seized on the county of Chester; gave other lands in lieu of it to the sisters of the deceased earl, and bestowed the earldom of Chester on his son, Prince Edward. King Richard II. having erected it into a principality, among his other royal titles, styled himself *Princeps Cestriæ:* this act was abrogated by his successor, and Cheshire again became a county palatine, and it continued under the King's eldest sons, who from time to time were created Earls of Chester, to be governed, as in the time of its ancient Earls, by a jurisdiction separate from, and independent of the parliament of England. In the reign of King Henry VI. an attempt was made to infringe the privileges of the palatine by the parliament at Leicester, which issued a commission for levying a subsidy in Cheshire, in common with the other counties. Upon this the abbots, priors, and clergy, the barons, knights, esquires, and commons of Cheshire, presented a petition to the King, in which they state that the Earls of Chester always had their high courts of parliament, to hold at their wills; that since the grant of the Earldom of Chester to Hugh Lupus, to be held by the sword, they had their court of common law, in which, as by the common law of England, the tenor of the indictments ran *contra coronam et dignitatem*, so in their court it was *contra dignitatem gladii Cestriæ;* that they had also their courts of chancery, of exchequer, and of common pleas; and had never sent any knights, citizens, or burgesses, to any parliament holden out of the county. The prayer of their petition was granted; they were discharged of the levy of the subsidy, and their separate jurisdiction and privileges being recognized and confirmed, remained in full force till the reign of King Henry VIII., when they were much abridged; but some of their privileges were continued, and were again confirmed in the year 1568, by Queen Elizabeth, who, by her patent of that date, recognizes the powers of the justice of Chester, and of the chamberlain; an officer, whose jurisdiction is described as being similar to that of a chancellor: it is declared by the same patent, that all pleas of lands and tenements, and all contracts, causes, and matters, rising and growing within the said county, (except in cases of error, foreign plea, or foreign vouch,) could legally be tried within the county of Chester only; and that the president and council of the principality of Wales had no jurisdiction within the county or city of Chester: for the enjoyment of their liberties, on the accession of every new Earl, the county was to pay a fine of 3000 marks, called a mize.

'The authority of the judges and officers of the great session of the county palatine extends over the counties of Chester and Flint, and one seal is used for both counties; the king's writ does not run in the county palatine, but all writs issuing from the superior courts are directed to the chamberlain, (and not to the sheriff, as in other counties,) who issues his mandate to the sheriff.'

Respecting Ecclesiastical Jurisdiction, we are informed that

'This county was, in ancient times, subject to the jurisdiction of the Bishops of Mercia, who sometimes had their seat at Chester. Peter, who was bishop of this diocese in the reign of William the Conqueror, removed the episcopal see to Chester, placing it, as it is said, in St. John's church: his successors were, for more than three centuries, occasionally called by historians, Bishops of Chester, although his immediate successor, Robert de Lindsey, had removed the see from Chester to Coventry, where he had built a magnificent palace. Mathew Paris says, that in his days, the bishopric had three seats, Chester, Lichfield, and Coventry. In the year 1541, King Henry VIII. made Chester a distinct bishopric, assigning it for a diocese, the archdeacons of Chester and Richmond, severed from the sees of Lichfield and Coventry, and York: and comprising the whole of Cheshire and Lancashire; part of Yorkshire, Cumberland, and Westmoreland; one chapelry in Denbighshire, and four parishes in Flintshire. By the King's charter, the new bishopric was placed in the province of Canterbury; but by an act of parliament passed 33 Henry VIII., the diocese of Chester was transferred from the province of Canterbury to that of York. The original revenues of the bishopric consisted of the manor of Weston, in Derbyshire, the manor-house of which was intended as a country-seat for the bishop, and, being locally situated within the diocese of Lichfield and Coventry, was, by the act of 33 Henry VIII., ordained to be within that of Chester; the manor of Abbots-Cotton in Cheshire; various other lands and impropriate rectories, which had belonged to the dissolved monastery of St. Werburgh, and the revenues of the archdeaconries of Chester and Richmond.'

With respect to the nobility and gentry of the county, we are told that not many counties of similar extent can be mentioned, in which the number of wealthy landholders is so considerable, not fewer than fifty noblemen and gentlemen being resident in it, who possess property from 3 to 10,000l. a year; and at least as many others who have from 1 to 3,000l. a year. We have also a list of forty families still resident, whose descent has continued in an uninterrupted male line for more than three centuries, and some of them a much greater length of time; and a list of nine more such families as represent, and have taken the name of, other antient families. Of each of these families the volume contains extended accounts, which will render it particularly valuable and interesting to the inhabitants of the county. The list of seats of gentlemen, which are confined chiefly to halls, parks, and manerial residences, comprehends 77, to which are annexed the names of the occupiers; and 19 antient halls are enumerated, which were formerly occupied by the gentry, but now are either taken down or converted into farm-houses.

The authors inform us that 'the staple commodities of this county are cheese and salt.' The number of cows kept for the dairy is computed to be about 32,000, and the quantity of cheese annually made from them is about 11,500 tons. The annual average of white salt sent down the Weever from Winsford and Northwich, for the last ten years, is said to be 139,317 tons.—Among the products of Cheshire is also mentioned that of Potatoes; it being calculated that in Frodsham alone, 100,000 bushels have been raised annually for several years past. Great quantities of early potatoes are also reported to be grown in the hundred of Wirral by a peculiar process, and brought to market early in May, when they have been sold sometimes at 3s. a pound, frequently at 2s. 6d. The process is stated to consist in "transplanting the sets, (which should be of the earliest kind) during winter; carefully guarded from the frost, in a warm place, where they may sprout at least three inches by the beginning of March. As soon after that time as the weather happens to be favourable, they are, with the sprout on, to be carefully planted in a dry soil, in drills, with a small rib of earth between each drill, and the end of the sprout just under the surface of the ground. The plants should be kept covered with straw, or rushes, every night as long as the frost continues, and uncovered every favourable day."

In the account of Roman Stations, among a variety of interesting particulars relating to the city of Chester, it is observed:

'Chester is one of the towns, which, like London, York, Bath, and a few others, is universally allowed to be Roman; it was called by this people *Deva*, from the river which runs by its walls: and as early as the time of Agricola, or at least not long after, they fixed here the head-quarters of the twentieth legion, which, according to the military practice of the Romans, remained at Chester for upwards of two hundred years. It is not meant that the main body of the legion did not march into the field, whenever its services were required; but here they returned in winter, leaving detachments of their auxiliaries, to secure the proper posts in the conquered country; here their wives and children remained in security during the campaign; and here a numerous and warlike race of young men were continually growing up to fill their ranks, who, though natives of Britain, had no religion, interest, or manners but their's, and in fact no country but the camp of the legion itself. The different fortresses in Cheshire were garrisoned by the legionaries; the more distant dependencies, as I have said, by its auxiliary cohorts: the whole amounting to near 13,000 men, a force fully sufficient to keep all this part of the country in complete subjection: but the natives of Wales may reflect with some degree of pride, that the spirit of their gallant ancestors appeared so formidable to their conquerors, as to make them quarter one of the three legions which formed the British establishment, on their southern, and another on their northern borders, while the third was thought sufficient to repel all the efforts of the other Britons.'

In the section on Antient Church-Architecture, the various modes of building in the several churches are described, classed according to the centuries in which they were erected, and illustrated by plates, as mentioned in the account of Cambridge; the Antient Sepulchral Monuments are also described, and explained in the same interesting manner.—The subject of Parochial Topography is given much more at large (as before observed) than in the account of Cambridgeshire; and we think that this extension of the plan will add considerably to the value of the work. The several parishes are not only arranged alphabetically, but the townships of which they consist are enumerated, and each is alphabetically described. The sources whence the information was procured for these accounts are thus stated:

'The principal MS. sources from which we have derived the information contained in the following brief parochial histories, are the collections of the Randal Holmes and others, in the British Museum;

the records at the Tower; abstracts of the records in the exchequer at Chester; the collections of John Woodnoth, Esq. of Shavington; Smith's, and various other heraldic collections; Dr. Williamson's *Villare Cestriense;* Bishop Gastrell's *Notitia Cestriensis;* and the answers of the Cheshire clergy to the inquiries of Bishop Cleaver and Bishop Porteus, relative to various parochial matters in 1778 and 1789. We had an opportunity of purchasing several of the above MSS., which had formerly been the property of Mr. Francis Bassano, deputy-herald for Chester, who was sheriff of that city in 1734, and afterwards of Mr. John Orme, organist, who was sheriff in 1773. The abstract of records in the exchequer at Chester is now in the record-office at the Tower; Dr. Williamson's *Villare Cestriense*, and Woodnoth's collections, we have deposited in the British Museum; Smith's collections, and a book of pedigrees, drawn up, as it appears, from deeds and pleadings, by Mr. John Booth of Twemlow, and Mr. John Woodnoth, in the heralds' college, as well for the convenience of public reference, as a slight mark of gratitude for the valuable materials which we have from time to time obtained from those ample sources of information. We have been favoured by Miss Harwood of Nantwich, with the loan of the transcript of Bishop Gastrell's *Notitia*, which was made by the Rev. Mr. Harwood her father, for Dr. Gower's use, and returned after his decease; from the same lady we have been favoured also with the loan of a MS. narrative of the siege of Chester, which had belonged to her father, and some other papers. For the history of Chester we have had the use of Archdeacon Rogers's MS., now the property of William Nicholls Esq.; we have had access to the corporation muniments and journals, and have taken notes from some copious annals of Chester among the Holmes's MSS., and from a journal of the siege by one of those antiquaries. With respect to the more modern history of the county and city, we have personally visited every parish and several of them a second time: for the descent of property within the last century, and for various other matters relating to the general history of the county, and to that of the several parishes, we are under great obligations to William Nicholls, Esq. deputy registrar, who, with indefatigable industry and zeal has circulated queries for the purpose of our work, and collected a great store of information from every part of the county; and we have to express our obligations both to those of the gentry and clergy who, through his hands, have favoured us with such information, as well as to those who have honoured us with immediate communications.'

From the several accounts, we select, for the information of such of our readers as are not acquainted with the city of Chester, the following particulars of the singular construction of its streets:

'The city of Chester, still surrounded by its ancient walls, is divided into four principal streets, called Eastgate-street, Northgate-street, Bridge-street, and Watergate-street. The carriage road in these streets is on a level with the under-ground warehouses: over these are open galleries, called *rows*, for the accommodation of foot-passengers, which occupy the space between the front of the tradesmen's shops and the street; the upper rooms of the houses project over the rows, so as to be even with the warehouses beneath. The general appearance of these rows is as if the first stories in front of all the houses had been laid open, and made to communicate with each other, pillars only being left for the support of the superstructure: the foot passengers appear from the street as if they were walking along within the houses, up one pair of stairs. At the intersections of the streets there are flights of steps leading to the opposite rows. Some of the rows are so wide that the proprietors of the houses place stalls between the footway and the street, which they let out advantageously to other tradesmen, particularly during the fairs. Mr. Pennant thinks that he discerns in these rows the form of the antient vestibules attached to the houses of the Romans who once possessed this city: many vestiges of their edifices have certainly been discovered at Chester, as we have already noticed, but there seems to be little resemblance between the Chester rows, and the vestibules of the Romans, whose houses were constructed only of one story. Some have attributed the origin of the rows to the period when Chester was liable to frequent attacks from the Welsh, which induced the inhabitants to build their houses in this form, that when the enemy should at any time have forced an entrance, they might avoid the danger of the horsemen, and annoy their assailants as they passed through the streets.'

At the close of the volume are some Additions and Corrections, for which the compilers acknowlege themselves principally indebted to the Rev. Hugh Cholmondeley, D.D. F.R.S., Dean of Chester, the Rev. Joseph Eaton, Precentor of that Cathedral, and Holland Watson, Esquire, of Congleton. Similar Additions and Corrections for the county of Cambridge, with an Index of Names, and a General Index, (which are given for this county,) are printed; and the purchasers of the work are desired to apply for them to the publishers.

We have hitherto reserved for separate mention an account of the numerous plates of this volume, which contribute much to the value and importance of the work. Their subjects are not picturesque scenery, as is frequently the case in similar publications, but illustrations of interesting particulars in the history. On this department, we must quote the statement of the authors at the commencement of the volume; premising that what is here said of the part belonging to Cambridgeshire is in some respects applicable to the rest:

'The number of Plates in this part of the second Volume will be greater than in the two others, in consequence of the numerous remains of Gothic architecture, which are to be found in Cambridgeshire; such of these as serve to exhibit a series of the styles of different centuries, have been selected with the friendly assistance of Mr. Robert Smirke, by whom the greater part of the drawings has been made, with that skill and accuracy which are well known to those who have had opportunities of examining his Architectural Drawings; and it is but justice to Mr. Lee to say that his Etchings are executed with the utmost fidelity.

'Many of the subjects are expressed by little more than an outline, in order to shew the several parts distinctly, which are often in a great measure lost in more laboured engravings. We think it necessary here to observe, that our plates are intended to convey correct ideas of the forms of curious objects, for the purpose of information; and not to produce a picturesque effect; besides, when executed in this manner, they not only answer our purpose better, but we are enabled at the same time to give a much greater number of them. We have made such a selection of the Brass Plates from ancient gravestones, as shews the greatest variety of the dresses of former ages; these have been engraved with the most scrupulous accuracy, and some of them under the most favourable circumstances; as we have been favoured by Craven Ord, Esq. with the use of impressions printed off from the originals.'

The plates in this part of the volume are 33 in number, several of which are double the size of its page. The first is a map of the county, delineated from a trigonometrical survey by the late Charles Mason, D.D., Fellow of Trinity College. The subject of Antient Church-Architecture is illustrated by 14 plates, most of which are representations of parts of Ely Cathedral. Antient Painted Glass is represented in colours in one plate, and Antient Fonts in another. To Antient Sepulchral Monuments are allotted nine plates. The subjects of the remainder are a Plan of the University and Town of Cambridge; an Antient Cup belonging to Pembroke Hall; Plan of King's College Chapel, and a Design for its Tower; Plan of Ely Cathedral; a View of St. Mary's, Whittlesea; and an Antient Chapel in Willingham Church.

The part containing the Account of Cheshire has 35 plates, the first of which is a Map of the County; four of them contain representations of Roman Altars, and other antiquities found at Chester: seven are illustrative of Antient Church-Architecture, according to its different styles and centuries; and four relate to Antient Sepulchral Monuments, in the same manner. Antient Mansions are represented by five plates of very curious specimens of Antient Domestic Architecture; and several other plates delineate interesting subjects, among which are Views and a Plan of Chester Cathedral, and also a Plan of the City.

Of these engravings, several, particularly the maps and plans, are very neatly executed; and those which are not highly finished are sufficient to give clear ideas of the objects. We think that considerable judgment has been displayed in selecting the subjects for delineation; and the reader will find several excellencies in them, such as scales of dimensions, explanations to letters of reference, ground plans, &c., for which he may vainly look in most of the plates of similar publications, and which add considerably to the utility of the present work.

Art. III. *A Description of the Collection of Ancient Terra-cottas in the British Museum;* with Engravings. 4to. pp. 39.; and 40 Plates. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Large Paper, 3l. 3s. Sold at the British Museum, and by Messrs. Nicol. 1810.

It may not be known to all our readers that our great national Repository, the British Museum, has lately received the addition of a magnificent Gallery; which contains, besides the antient works of art formerly deposited in other parts of the Museum, the whole of the late Mr. Charles Towneley's superb collection of antient sculpture, and now comprises, therefore, two portions of antient art which are very superior to any that are known to exist in Europe: the one, Sir William Hamilton's collection of Etruscan vases, together with the Barberini or Portland vase, of unequalled workmanship; and the other, the collection of antient Terra-cottas, of which the first part of a description is now before us. This work proceeds under the direction of the Trustees of that Institution; and we understand that it is only the commencement of a series which will exhibit the whole contents of this superb gallery of Antiquities. The publication, though very handsome, does not appear with all that costly splendor which often distinguishes a national production, because the Trustees have obviously been guided by the more important motive of desiring extensively to diffuse a knowlege of the collection by a neat and appropriate description, and faithful representations; avoiding every useless exuberance, for the purpose of affording the book at a moderate price. The present volume is allotted to that portion of the gallery in which are deposited the Terra-cottas: the drawings being made by Mr. Alexander, and the descriptions being written by Mr. Taylor Combe; both of them officers attached to the Museum, and, in their several departments, of the first acknowleged abilities. The engravings are executed in the line-manner, by various artists, among whom we observe the names of C. Heath, L. Schiavonetti, Bromley, A. Smith, Skelton, Cardon, Fittler, and Moses.

The distinct subjects are in number 79; all of which are first generally represented in two side-views of the room in which they are deposited, marked with the numbers, as they are affixed in the gallery. Seventy-five are then engraved on a larger scale in the succeeding plates; in which fidelity of representation has been the ruling object, and in no instance have we seen it more satisfactorily accomplished: no liberty of any kind being taken for picturesque effect, but, such as the original is, so it is represented in the print, with a resemblance that renders nothing more to be desired after having viewed the originals. The same pertinacious care is observable in the written descriptions; in which no fanciful conjectures are obtruded on the reader, but which are in every instance confined to the developement of sound information. — Regarding the work, however, as only in the first stage of its progress, we shall defer more particular observations until it is farther advanced, and shall content ourselves at present with offering to our readers a few extracts from the text, as specimens of the general execution.

In the introduction, it is observed that

'Nearly the whole of the Terracottas, from which the engravings in this volume are made, were the property of the late Charles Towneley, Esq., and, at his death, were purchased, together with his Marbles, by Parliament, and vested in the Trustees of the British Museum, for the use of the public.

'The foundation of Mr. Towneley's collection was begun in Italy, where a long residence enabled him to make many valuable acquisitions. After his return to England, the collection of Terracottas, belonging to Mr. Nollekens, was added to that formed by Mr. Towneley. This edition, both in extent and interest, was very considerable, for Mr. Nollekens, when a student at Rome, had paid particular attention to the acquisition of Terracottas, and had met with great success.

'All the statues here engraved, one only excepted, were found about the year 1765, in a well which was completely dry, near the Porta Latina at Rome. A labourer in digging red gravel, called *pozzolana*, with which the Italians harden their mortar, broke into the well, and discovered a heap of fragments of Terracotta. These fragments were purchased by Mr. Nollekens, who carefully joined the pieces together, and succeeded in restoring the figures nearly to their original state.

'The bas-reliefs were made use of by the ancients as decorations for their temples, tombs, and other buildings. They evidently formed the friezes. In the year 1761, a subterraneous place, divided into many chambers, was discovered at Scrofano, which is supposed to be the ancient Veii, and is about sixteen miles from Rome. The dome of the largest of these chambers was enriched with paintings, in *fresco*, representing animals. The whole of the frieze below the dome was ornamented with bas-reliefs in Terracotta, which were fastened to the wall with leaden nails. Many tombs in the Appian road, as well as the temple, dedicated to Honour and Virtue, near the Circus of Caraccalla, were ornamented in a similar manner with Terra-cottas; and there are several ancient chambers still visible in the

neighbourhood

neighbourhood of Rome, in which, though the bas-reliefs have been long since removed, the places which they occupied are perfectly distinguishable.

'The bas-reliefs have been undoubtedly cast in moulds; they were afterwards baked, and perhaps occasionally retouched by the graver. Of the designs, some are of Roman invention, but the greater part of them appear to have been copied from the works of Greek artists.

'A few of the Terra-cottas here engraved were originally in possession of Sir Hans Sloane. In the following description these will be particularly specified.'

The subject marked No. 13. is thus described:

'A bas-relief, imperfect, representing a fragment of Medusa's head; on one side of it is a figure of Minerva holding up her shield, on the surface of which Medusa's head is reflected. This bas-relief, when perfect, probably represented the figure of Perseus standing on the other side of Medusa, and in the act of severing her head from her body. Minerva is not only said to have been present, while Perseus was engaged in this enterprise, but to have held up her shield, as a mirror, in order to direct his aim, and save him from the destruction, which the sight of Medusa would otherwise have occasioned to him. The assistance, which Minerva afforded Perseus in this particular instance, is represented on a coin of Caracalla, struck at Sebaste, in Galatia. The head of Medusa in this bas-relief is furnished with a pair of wings.'—

'No. 16.—A bas-relief, representing the goddess Minerva superintending the construction of the ship Argo. The figure, employed in using a chissel and hammer, is Argus, the builder of the ship; and the other figure, assisted by Minerva in fixing the sail to the yard, is Tiphys, the pilot of the vessel. The ship was built at Pagasæ, a sea port of Magnesia, in Thessaly, where there was a temple of Apollo; and the timber, with which the vessel was constructed, was cut from the forest of pines on the top of Mount Pelios. Winckelmann is, therefore, of opinion that the tree and part of the edifice, which are introduced into this bas-relief, represent both the forest of Pelios and the temple of Apollo. This forest, however, could hardly have been represented so close to the town, since they stood at a considerable distance from each other; and as the temple of Apollo would have no particular connection with the present subject, it is probable that the edifice rather represents part of the walls of the city of Pagasæ, namely, that part which fronted the sea. The style of the building coincides strongly with this supposition. This bas-relief, and two others similar to it, were found in an old wall of a vineyard, near the Porta Latina at Rome, where they had been made use of instead of bricks.'—

'No. 35.—A bas-relief, representing Egyptian hieroglyphics. These hieroglyphics, however, were neither made in Egypt, nor by an Egyptian artist, but are of Roman workmanship, and executed perhaps about the time of Hadrian. In the reign of that Emperor, the veneration of Egyptian divinities prevailed to a very considerable degree at Rome. Among the splendid buildings which Hadrian erected in the grounds belonging to his villa near Tivoli, was a temple to which l gave the name of Canopus, and which he decorated with such statu as were held in adoration by the ancient Egyptians. The example th set by the Emperor, was very generally followed by the people, and is owing to this circumstance that so many imitations of Egypti sculpture are found among the remains of Roman art.'—

'No. 59.—A bas-relief, representing two Fauns treading out tl juice of grapes in a wine-press. On the left is a Faun exhilaratir them in their labour by the sounds of the double pipe, and of an i strument called *scabellum*, which was either fastened to the foot, as the statue of a Faun in the Florentine Collection, or was placed, as the present instance, on the ground, and occasionally struck by tl foot. On the right is another Faun, somewhat aged in his appea ance, and laden with a heavy basket of grapes, which he is carrying the press. The custom of treading out the juice of the grape, whic is still followed in many of the wine countries, was very generall practised by the ancients. The grapes, however, after great part their juice had been expressed in this manner, were transferred to a other press, which was worked by a lever, and was more powerful its operation.'

'No. 60.—A bas-relief, representing a chariot race in the gam of the Circus, which were instituted at Rome, in imitation of tl Olympian games in Greece. Only one car is introduced, drawn l four horses, which are galloping towards the *metæ* with great velocit The car is already so close to the metæ, that the charioteer is on tl point of turning his horses round them, which was the most difficu part he had to perform in the race. If he made too short a turn, l endangered the car, which was very frequently dashed to pieces, an if through the impetuosity of the horses, or his own want of skill, l overshot the metæ, one of the rival cars immediately following, migh by making a shorter turn, obtain the lead. The instructions Homer, which direct, that, in turning round the goal, the rigl hand horse should be urged on with a loose rein, are here exactl followed. The charioteer is dressed in the habit, usually worn on suc occasions. On his head is a helmet, and the rest of his dress consis of a short close jacket and trowers. His body is swathed round wit bands, which have the appearance of ropes. The reins pass entirel round him, in order that he may not only have more command ov them, but that he may be in less danger of being thrown out of tl car in the event of any accident. At the foot of the metæ part of human figure is seen, but it is in too mutilated a state to be describe An equestrian figure is also introduced into this bas-relief; this figu has nearly cleared the metæ, and only the hind part of the horse an of the rider is visible. The inscription, ANNIAE ARESCVSA, writte on a tablet over the heads of the horses, records the name of the artis who appears to have been a female.'—

'No. 73.—A bas-relief, representing Cupid pressing Psyche t his breast. Psyche is here represented in the form of a butterfl The story of Psyche, as is well known, is an allegorical fable, und which the ancients intended to designate the soul. The word *Psyc* signifies in Greek both the soul and a butterfly, and it was in th

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simple form of that insect, that Psyche or the soul was personified in the earlier representations of this allegory. The human form was afterwards given to Psyche, but the wings of the butterfly, her original symbol, were affixed to her shoulders. It is remarkable that Apuleius is the first writer who relates the story of Psyche, but it is by no means a fair conclusion that the ancient figures of Psyche have been, therefore, borrowed from his description. There are extant many groupes of Cupid and Psyche, which are unquestionably of a period anterior to the time in which Apuleius lived. Of this description are the marble statues of Cupid and Psyche in the Florentine Gallery, as well as those which were formerly in the Capitol, but are now at Paris. The celebrated gem, engraved by Trypho, representing the marriage of Cupid and Psyche, at present in the possession of the Duke of Marlborough, is one of the most beautiful specimens of ancient art, and evinces a degree of excellence in the design and execution, which is far superior to any effort of art in the time of the above-mentioned writer.

'No. 74.—A bas-relief, representing Cupid flying with a palm branch in one hand, and a chaplet in the other. In Aristophanes, Cupid is described as having wings similar to those of Victory, but here he is represented not only with the wings, but also with the customary attributes of that goddess, in reference to his conquests over all the regions of animated nature. In several Greek poets he is styled the universal conqueror, and his triumphs are both frequently and variously expressed by the antient artists, who, in conformity to the attributes with which he is accompanied in this bas-relief, have sometimes represented him in the act of erecting a trophy.' *

We shall gladly hail the appearance of the next portion of this work; trusting that it will be conducted with the same spirit of correctness which is exhibited in the present specimen.

Art. IV. Baron De Humboldt's *Political Essay on the Kingdom of New Spain,* translated by Mr. Black. Vols. I. and II.

[*Art. concluded from Review for December, p.* 365.]

In addition to those observations of the author on the condition of the Indians, with which our preceding article relative to this interesting Essay concluded, considerable light is thrown on the subject by an extract from a Memoir presented to the Court of Spain by the venerable Bishop of Mechoacan, in the year 1799. It appears, from this and other documents, that the whites do not form above a fifth of the Spanish American population; the remaining four-fifths being composed of Indians, and of *Castas*, or the race of mixed blood. Yet almost all property is centered in the whites; and though the Indians are governed in their villages by magistrates of their own nation, the artifice of petty aristocracies appears to be as prevalent and as adverse to public improvement among them as in Europe. The *Castas*, or people of colour, being chiefly descended from slaves, are kept in a state of degradation, which fosters in them a constant irritation against the whites. They are subject, likewise, to a capitation-tax; an impost which is more obnoxious as a badge of slavery than as a pecuniary burden. The rapacity of the white magistrates, *(justicias territoriales,)* who maintained a monopoly of trade in their respective districts has been destructive of personal comfort to many individuals, and has produced the mischief of bad example to all. Until these evils are removed, it is in vain to expect any progress in moral improvement among the inhabitants of New Spain. The late viceroys have been men of good character, but fettered in their measures by the government of the mother-country; which, like our India-Company, wished to rule in detail provinces at the distance of half the globe. An administration so imperfectly instructed naturally lends a willing ear to those interested persons who allege that, were greater liberty granted to the Indians, the whites would have every thing to fear from their vindictive spirit. Of the whites in New Spain, nine-tenths are Creoles, and scarcely a tenth part are native Europeans.

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* We have omitted a number of quotations from antient authors, with which, in the form of notes, Mr. Combe has illustrated his descriptions.

With regard to intellectual cultivation, the cities which occupy the foremost rank are the Havannah, Mexico, Lima, Santa Fé, Quito, Popayan, and Caraccas. The Havannah, having long been a seat of commerce, bears the nearest resemblance to European cities in the refinements of luxury. The interests of the cultivator and the merchant are likewise well understood there: but the sciences prosper more slowly than in the great cities on the American continent. Of these, Mexico occupies the first place; and chemistry, astronomy, painting, sculpture, botany, as well as natural history in general, are cultivated with a degree of success which we should by no means expect at such a distance from Europe. Fine buildings are to be seen in abundance in Mexico, and even in provincial cities like Guanaxuato and Queretaro: but classical studies are here, as in the United States, in inferior estimation. The extension of royal patronage, and the great improvements in scientific study, have taken place chiefly within the last half century. No government, says Baron Humboldt, has been more liberal in its efforts to advance the knowlege of the vegetable kingdom than the

Spanish. Botanical gardens have been established at Manilla and at the Canary islands; and three botanical expeditions have been sent out in Peru, New Granada, and New Spain.

On comparing the cities of Mexico and Lima, we find much more splendor and wealth in the former, but a greater share of personal comfort in the latter. Mexico is the abode of inequality; the elegance of the architecture, furniture, and equipages of the rich, forming a remarkable contrast with the nakedness and vulgarity of the lower orders. Like the Lazaroni of Naples, the Guachinangos of Mexico, lazy and careless but at the same time abstemious, earn the subsistence of the week by the labour of one or two days, and are contented to pass their lives in listless poverty; sleeping at night under the canopy of heaven, and stretching themselves out to the sun by day with no other than a flannel covering. In no class is the inequality of Mexican fortunes more conspicuous than in the clergy, of whom many suffer extreme poverty, while others possess the incomes of princes. The collective revenues of the eight Mexican bishops exceed one hundred thousand pounds sterling; while numbers of the inferior clergymen are confined to twenty and twenty-five pounds a year. The rumours long current in Europe, respecting the immensity of Mexican wealth, have given rise to very exaggerated ideas of the quantity of gold and silver employed in their plate and furniture: but the truth is that the proportion invested in that manner is scarcely greater than in Portugal and Old Spain, and does not much exceed the domestic appropriations of our own country. The difference, such as it is, is owing less to superior wealth than to the scarcity of porcelain in New Spain, and the difficulty of conveying it through bad and mountainous roads.

We shall close our observations on the state of society in New Spain by extracting M. de Humboldt's remarks on the different *casts*, and on the political evils arising from these divisions:

> 'These casts constitute a mass almost as considerable as the Mexican Indians. We may estimate the total of the individuals of mixed blood at nearly 2,400,000. From a refinement of vanity, the inhabitants of the colonies have enriched their language with terms for the finest shades of the colours which result from the degeneration of the primitive colour.'—
>
> 'The son of a white (Creole or European), and a native of copper-colour, is called *Mestizo*. His colour is almost a pure white; and his skin is of a particular transparency. The small beard and small hands and feet, and a certain obliquity of the eyes, are more frequent indications of the mixture of Indian blood than the nature of the hair. If a *Mestiza* marry a white man, the second generation differs hardly in any thing from the European race. As very few negros

negros have been introduced into New Spain, the Mestizos probably compose⅞ of the whole casts. They are generally accounted of much more mild character than the *mulattoes*, descended from whites and negresses, who are distinguished for the violence of their passions and a singular volubility of tongue. The descendants of negros and Indian women bear at Mexico, Lima, and even at the Havannah, the strange name of *Chino*, Chinese. On the coast of Caraccas, and, as appears from the laws, even in New Spain, they are called *zambos*. From the mixture of a white man with a mulatto comes the cast of *quarterons*. When a female quarteron marries a European or creole, her son bears the name of *quinteron*. A new alliance with a white banishes to such a degree the remains of colour, that the children of a white and female quinteron are white also. The casts of Indian or African blood preserve the odour peculiar to the cutaneous transpiration of those two primitive races.'—'In Spain it is almost a title of nobility to descend neither from Jews nor Moors. In America, the greater or less degree of whiteness of skin decides the rank which man occupies in society. A white who rides barefooted on horseback thinks he belongs to the nobility of the country. When a common man disputes with one of the titled lords of the country, he is frequently heard to say, "Do you think me not so white as yourself?" It becomes, consequently, a very interesting business for the public vanity to estimate accurately the fractions of European blood which belong to the different casts. According to the principles sanctioned by usage, we have adopted the following proportions:

Casts.			Mixture of blood.	
Quarterons	.	.	¼ negro	¾ white
Quinterons	.	.	⅛ negro	⅞ white
Zambo	.	.	¾ negro	¼ white
Zambo prieto	.	.	⅞ negro	⅛ white.'—

'I am inclined to believe, what many other travellers have observed before me, that the Americans are endowed by nature with a gentleness of manners rather approaching to effeminacy, as the energy of several European nations easily degenerates into harshness. The want of sociability so universal in the Spanish colonies, and the hatreds which divide the casts of greatest affinity, the effects of which shed a bitterness over the life of the colonists, are solely due to the political principles by which these regions have been governed since the sixteenth century. A government, aware of the true interests of humanity, will be able to diffuse information and instruction, and by extinguishing gradually the monstrous inequality of rights and fortunes, will succeed in augmenting the physical prosperity of the colonists; but it will find immense difficulties to overcome before rendering the inhabitants sociable, and teaching them to consider themselves mutually in the light of fellow citizens.'—'The mixture of races of which the interests are diametrically opposite, became long since an inexhaustible source of hatred and disunion. In proportion as the descendants of the Europeans became more numerous than those sent over directly by the mother country, the white race divided into two parties, of which the ties of blood cannot heal the resentments. The colonial government from a mistaken policy wished to take advantage of these dissensions. The greater the colony, the greater the suspicion of the administration. According to the ideas which unfortunately have been adopted for ages, these distant regions are considered as tributary to Europe. Authority is there distributed not in the manner which the public interest requires, but according as the dread of seeing a too rapid increase in the prosperity of the inhabitants seems to dictate. Seeking security in civil dissensions, in the balance of power, and in a complication of all the springs of the great political machine, the mother country foments incessantly the spirit of party and hatred among the casts and constituted authorities. From this state of things arises a rancour which disturbs the enjoyments of social life.'

After a variety of striking though desultory observations on the moral condition of the inhabitants of New Spain, M. de Humboldt proceeds to the less interesting topic of statistics. He explains the division of this extensive empire into fifteen Intendancies; and, having enumerated (p. 284.) their respective extent and population, he recommends, as an indispensable step to the dissemination of improvement, a nearer approach to equality in these allotments of provincial jurisdiction. He exhorts the Spanish government to follow in this respect the example of the Constituent Assembly of France, whose departmental divisions were founded on simple and natural principles, and have remained unimpaired amid all the fluctuations of the Revolution.—Of the different Intendancies or provinces of New Spain, that of Mexico, being by far the most important, receives the largest portion of the traveller's attention. We wish that we could add that his descriptions possess the merit of perspicuity: but arrangement is no where the characteristic of this work; and the want of it is doubly felt in a subject, the dryness of which required all the aid that careful execution could confer. Many pages are bestowed on a delineation of the singular position of the city of Mexico, in low ground, and in the neighbourhood of lakes which still expose it to inundation. The construction of the *desague*, or tunnel for carrying off these dangerous waters through a hill to the north, the partial overflowing of the city which began in 1629 and lasted nearly five years, and the various hydraulic operations which have been since contrived for protection against the recurrence of disaster, are all described at considerable length. The chief result of these disquisitions is that a new canal, extending along the whole valley of Mexico, from Chalco on the south to Huehuetoca on the north, would be of the highest utility both for safety and commercial accommodations.—In this province, next to the city of Mexico, which contains about 140,000 inhabitants, is to be ranked the city of Queretaro, celebrated for the beauty of its buildings, and possessing a population of

35,000. To the account of the intendancy of Mexico, M. d Humboldt has joined a circumstantial report of the statistics c the other provinces. While we acknowledge the value of suc information in regard to a country hitherto so little known, w are not inclined to detain our readers with an enumeration c local details, which appear less fitted for continued perusal tha for occasional reference in the manner of a dictionary. similar reason prevents our passing any comments on the de scription (Vol. ii. p. 357.) of the coast of the great ocean e tending to Prince William's Sound; and though a larger po tion of interest might be excited by a notice of the expedition of different navigators, particularly that of Malespina in 178 (p. 377.) our limits do not permit us to extend our observation on this part of the book.

The most entertaining division of the second volume is th which treats (p. 400.) of the vegetable productions of th Mexican territory. The author begins by correcting the cu rent notion that the wealth of this country consists more in i mines than in its agriculture. While it must be admitted, o the one hand, that the labour of the mines has withdrawn fro the cultivation of the ground a proportion of the capital whic might otherwise have been invested in it, it is equally true, o the other, that the temptations of mining have tended to brin both men and money into the country, and to promote materi ally the consumption of the produce of the soil. Of the pro ductions which minister to the food of man in the warm cli mates of America, the most useful is the *Banana*. It seems t be to the inhabitants of these regions what Rice is to the India and Corn to the European; and perhaps no other plant on th globe can produce, in so small a space of ground, so conside able a mass of nutritive substance. The banana begins t display its clusters eight or nine months after the sucker ha been planted; and, in the tenth or eleventh month, the fruit i ripe for gathering. When the stalk is cut, a sprout succeed to the mother-plant, and bears fruit three months later; so th the growth is perpetuated, without any other care than that c cutting those stalks of which the fruit has ripened, and c giving the earth once or twice in a year a slight dressin around the roots. A spot of 1000 square feet will contai thirty banana plants, producing in the space of a year nearly thousand pounds weight of nutritious substance; a quantity f exceeding the growth of potatoes, and still more that of whea It has been computed that the acre, which in Europe mai tains when under wheat only two individuals, may support be tween forty and fifty under the torrid zone by the culture c the banana. Accordingly, an European, arriving in that part c

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the world, is struck with nothing so much as the smallness of the spots under cultivation around a cabin which contains a numerous family of Indians.

Maize occupies the same region as the banana, but its cultivation may be extended over a much wider range of climate. It may be raised either in districts as hot as the coast of New Spain, or on the summits of mountains as high as the Pyrenees; its cultivation suffering from the cold in those countries only in which the mean temperature is under 46 degrees. Such is its amazing fecundity in a warm climate, that, even on indifferent soil, it returns sixty grains for one: one hundred and fifty for one are hardly more than a middling crop; and very fertile lands are said to yield even twice as much. Maize being the principal food of the people of Mexico, as well as of the domestic animals, its price consequently modifies that of most other kinds of provision; and a failure in the harvest of maize, whether from the want of rain or from premature frost, produces all the evil of a general scarcity. In the neighbourhood of mines, crowded both with men and with animals for the purpose of draught, a deficiency of the customary supply of maize leads to the most distressing consequences. Unfortunately, of all gramina cultivated by man, maize appears the most unequal in its produce; varying in its return in the same field from 50 to 300 for 1, according to the changes of humidity and the temperature of the season. In the hands, however, of a provident people, little cause would exist for apprehending danger from these fluctuations, since maize may be stored up and kept for several years. In general, one crop only in a year is raised, the sowing season being from June to August. It may be eaten either boiled or roasted, and is used in as many various shapes as the rice of India or China.—One of the chief objections to the extension of the culture of maize is its weight, with the consequent difficulty of conveyance. The grain is heavier in proportion to the quantity of nutritive substance than our wheat; and, if we find in this country of roads and canals that the price of grain is materially enhanced by the charge of carriage, how much more must this be the case in the rude and difficult communications of New Spain?

A chief impediment to the regular fertility of the soil of New Spain is the infrequency of rain. After we have passed the 28th degree of latitude to the southward, we find only two seasons, the rainy, from June to September or October; and the dry, which lasts during the other eight months of the year. This long continuance of drought compels the inhabitants in many parts to have recourse to artificial irrigations. When these are completely established, the fertility of the ground is surprizing, the returns of wheat being, in some situations, 30, 40, and even 50 to 1. Even in New California, the produce of wheat may be reckoned at the rate of 16 or 17 for 1; being double the average produce of the soil of France.

The last of the Mexican plants, of which our limits permit us to take notice, is the *Maguey*, a species of the Anana, cultivated by the Indians for the sake of converting its juice into a spirituous liquor. It often becomes fit to yield juice at the age of eight years; and an incision being once made, the running may be continued, for two or three months, at the rate of three or four draughts daily. The quantity obtained is surprizing, particularly when we consider the bare and arid grounds on which this plant is generally cultivated. Its firm and vigorous leaves are not affected either by drought or hail, nor by the excessive cold which is prevalent in winter on the higher Cordilleras of Mexico. The juice is an agreeable acid, and is easily fermented on account of the sugar and mucilage which it contains. Its odour, when fit for drinking, is by no means agreeable: but, when this objection is removed by time and habit, its strengthening and nourishing qualities are such as to procure for it with many persons a preference over all other liquors; and its consumption in New Spain is carried to so considerable an amount, as to render the tax on it an object of importance to the revenue.—The culture of the vine has been introduced into the Spanish colonies, and cannot fail to be attended with great success, as soon as it shall be freed from the discouragements which are imposed on it by the influence of those in the mother-country who wish to reserve to themselves a monopoly of the sale of European wine.

From the extracts which we have made, and the idea which we have endeavoured to convey of the general contents of this publication, as far as we have yet proceeded*, our readers, we trust, have been enabled to form an adequate conception of the importance of Baron Humboldt's information. We have seldom met with a writer who is more versed in the ideas which are suggested by a long habit of travelling, or more expert at applying the illustrations which a familiar acquaintance with various regions can alone supply. Though he is by no means deficient in the general views which arise in a comprehensive mind from the study of history, we are induced to think that, in general, his conclusions are more valuable when drawn from observations of the present than when derived from a consideration of the past. Yet we have noticed with pleasure occasional passages (as Vol. i. p. 178.) which prompt us to qualify the negative part of this opinion, and which denote a philosophic knowlege of the structure of society.—After having offered this encomium, the ungracious duty remains of making good our charge of deficiency in method and arrangement. The justice of this allegation can scarcely fail to be perceived on a perusal merely of the introduction, which is uncommonly long, and replete with miscellaneous matter. Throughout the whole book, the author's remarks on natural history are indiscriminately blended with his topical descriptions: names of persons, little known in this quarter of the globe, are often introduced without previous explanation; the table of contents is wholly deficient in regard to half of the work; and a title occupying in each page the space of eight lines, is needlessly repeated during 187 successive pages. The trespasses on typographical accuracy appear to be equally serious. Among many other errors, we have in one place (Vol. i. p. 101.) 'deaths' instead of 'births;' in another, (Vol. ii. p.450.) 'more frequent,' where 'less frequent' would be more proper; and in a third, (p. 458.) 'from June to September' instead, as it appears from the context, of 'from September to June.' A stiffness, also, frequently disfigures the translation, arising from following literally the original collocation of the words, and from inattention in finding the suitable English phrase; as, for example, fruit is said (Vol. ii. p. 420.) to be '*collected*' instead of '*gathered*.' Such an assemblage of drawbacks will operate, we fear, considerably against the popularity of the book, both on the continent and among ourselves; especially when joined to the consideration that M. de Humboldt, travelling under the auspices of the Spanish government, and being received, throughout his progress, with flattering distinction, may be supposed to lean to the favourable side in his observations both on public measures and on public characters. This suspicion will not be lessened by the circumstance of the dedication being addressed to the King of Spain. Yet, notwithstanding all these disadvantages, the reader who has patience to study the work, and to condense in his mind the scattered information contained in it, will experience a considerable addition to his stock of ideas, and will find that his labour has not been ungratefully exerted.

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* The translation of Vols. iii. and iv., completing the work, has just reached us.

Of the magnificent plates and maps published with the original, a partial impression, on a reduced scale, has been struck off to accompany this translation.—The engravings are nine in number, and form a thin volume by themselves.—We hope to be able soon to report the remainder of the work.

ART.

deavour to convey to our readers some particulars of this interesting object, and at the same time afford a specimen of the language employed in the work and the abilities of the writer for such an undertaking. — After having mentioned that there appears to have been a grand entrance from the west into a long gallery or portico, and thence into a suite of small rooms dividing two courts; that at the east end was the principal building, having two wings on the north and south sides of the two courts, the baths occupying the south wing, and the servants' apartments being in the north; that the number of apartments discovered was upwards of 40: but that it is presumed that many more had existed, and that the principal rooms extended considerably towards the east; Mr. I. proceeds to inform us that,

'The foundations were generally two or three feet beneath the surface; yet, as little more of them remained than a foot or two in height, no traces were discoverable of entrances into the several apartments. The whole was constructed of the stone of the country, and the walls were in general from 2½ to 3, though in some instances 4, and even 5½ feet thick. The remaining walls of several apartments, particularly of that in which the large tessellated pavement was discovered, were painted on stucco in various colours; some green, others in stripes of red and white, and blue and white; the stucco composed of the lime of the country. The tesselated pavements, about 13 in number, though none perfect but the engraved one, were bedded on a body of clay in strong cement, and from 3 to 4 feet under ground. They were, composed of cubical tesseræ of different sizes, from half an inch to an inch and an half square, made from the lime-stone of the neighbourhood. Great quantities of broken urns, fluted and figured tiles, glass, and culinary vessels were discovered, but none perfect; also several fragments of plaister floors, composed of lime, fine gravel, and pounded red brick. These articles, together with several copper coins of the later empire, particularly a perfect one of Constantine the younger, having the following legend, CONSTANTINVS-IVN NOB C; and on the reverse GLORIA EXERCITVS., some fibulæ, two styles, and the head of a lance, lay scattered over the whole foundations.

'It was impossible to form an adequate idea of the nature of the superstructure; but, from the appearance of fire and of melted lead on the surface of the pavements, and from the fragments of burnt timber, it was probably built of wood; and the whole had evidently been destroyed by fire. This conjecture is strengthened by the circumstance of tiles being found lying confusedly upon the pavements, and which had served for roofs. Some tiles had grooves, others a smooth surface. The scene was rendered more seriously interesting by the discovery of an incredible number of human skeletons, which lay principally on the foundations. Some of them were rather beyond the usual stature, and the teeth remarkably white.

This sight produced strong reflections upon the elegance of a Ro villa, in a moment reduced to ruins by fire, converted into soli and silence, and become the dreary mansion of the dead. At time of the present discovery, the scene had again changed; hibiting in a richly cultivated corn-field, in its busy husbandm and in the flocks of the adjacent grounds, an interesting picture animated nature.

‘ On first observing the skeletons, Mr. Illingworth doubt whether they were Roman. It was evident from the coins of t younger Constantine being discovered here, that the villa had be inhabited by some Roman commander as late at least as that reign a period when Christianity prevailed amongst the Romans; and whe it became their custom, in conformity with that of other natior converted to the Christian faith, to bury their dead. Observing however, that the skeletons lay upon the very foundation-walls, du east and west, he ceased to entertain any doubts; and concluded that some Saxon, or other Christian chapel, might have been erected on the site of the villa. This he deemed the more reasonable, as it was not unusual, in the dawn of Christianity, to erect buildings for Christian worship on the site of others, which had been dedicated to Pagan superstition; and it is probable, so long as the Romans remained in Britain, this elegant villa continued to be the summer-residence of the commander of the Roman army in these parts; the head of the colony, Lindum, being distant only five miles. The circumstance also of the chalybeate spring within a few yards from the entrance of the villa, and still called Saint Pancras well, favours the conclusion of a chapel having been erected on its site.

‘ If any further reasons were wanting for this inference, it is supported by the strong evidence of a discovery, upon record, that a chapel, dedicated to Saint Pancras, did actually exist on this spot, so early as the beginning of the twelfth century; about which period Richard Fitz-Robert of Scampton gave to the monastery of Kirksted three selions of land in that lordship, two of which are described in the gift, as lying in the south field, on the south side of the chapel of Saint Pancras. To account for the bodies having connection with the chapel, it is sufficient to observe, that it was not unusual, on the erection of chapels, chantries, or oratories, for the crown to grant the liberty of burial annexed thereto.’

The Archdeacon continues to relate that the principal entrance into the villa was through a gate-way, where was discovered a large stone lying north and south on the foundation of the outward wall, of an oblong form, 6 feet 10 inches long, 3 feet 4 inches wide, (the width of the outward wall,) and 1 foot thick; and that this threshold was in the centre of the assage or narrow gallery, which was 140 feet long, 13 feet ide in the centre, 15 feet at the north, and 8 at the south nd, being probably intended to lead to the north and south ings. In one of the eastern apartments, he says, was discovered

covered a beautiful tesselated pavement, 31 feet in length, and 10 feet in width, which is represented in an elegant coloured engraving, and is thus described:

'It is composed of four large compartments of square and oblong forms, elegantly diversified, having at the south end part of a large circle; and, from the nature of the pattern, there is reason to suppose it extended to the end of the room. The tesseræ or dies, of which it is composed, are of a cubical form, and various in their size and colour. The inner compartments are of slate-blue, white, and deep red, half an inch square. These are surrounded by a border of circles, in which are quarter circles inverted, of a deep red, inlaid amongst tesseræ of a pale yellow. Beyond the circles are several rows of plain tesseræ of the latter colour, an inch, and an inch and half square; evidently composed of the stone of the country.

'When first discovered, the colours of this pavement were extremely bright; which circumstance, added to the curiously artificial workmanship, afforded a pleasing specimen of the Roman art. But it shortly after lost much of its original elegance, several of the tesseræ having been picked up by the country people, who flocked in numbers to view it. In order, however, to prevent the pavement sustaining any further injury, a building was erected over it. Notwithstanding this precaution, it is still to be lamented that the decay of its beauty becomes visibly rapid, from the effects produced by the hands of idle curiosity.'

This pavement would afford beautiful patterns for carpets, or floor-cloths.

After the account of this villa, the work proceeds with other information respecting the parish, which is classed under the following heads:—The Manor. Scampton hall. The Church. The Rectory. Parish Register. Succession of Rectors. Population, Value, &c. Overseer's Returns of Expences for the Poor. Annual Births. Proprietors of Scampton. Anecdotes of the Family of Bolle of Haugh and Thorpe Hall.—On these subjects, a variety of interesting particulars is detailed; indeed the industry of the compiler is conspicuous in having collected so many, and especially in minutely tracing the descent of property from the survey in Domesday-book to the present æra.

About the beginning of the seventeenth century, the manor and estates came by marriage into the possession of Sir John Bolles, (or Bolle,) Knight, who was descended from a very antient family; the elder branch of which settled at Haugh near Alford, and Thorpe Hall near Louth, in the county of Lincoln. Of several eminent individuals of this family, particular accounts are given, which compose the latter part of this topographical memoir. Sir John Bolle was present in the expedition against Cadiz in 1596, and attracted the love of a beautiful Spanish lady whom he had in charge as a prisoner. In Mr. Illingworth's

words,

to the topo
of the parish, and the subjects of which a
remaining seven, with the exception of
William Cayley, Esq. relate to the Bolles
interesting to their descendants and repres
are executed in a very handsome manner.

On a general review of this elegant
posed to say that the compiler has evinced
the execution of it. His subject being c
necesarily could not extend to any great l
is, it bears abundant proof of his being w
enlarged undertakings; and, since nothing
have been admitted into it, while eve
with its plan has been carefully introduce
followed as a model (as far as it goes,) b
publications.

Art. VI. *Geological Travels.* By J. A. De I
Travels in the North of Europe, containing
Part of the Coasts of the Baltic, and the N
from the French Manuscript. Illustrated w
ings. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Rivingtons.

In one of our late volumes, (lxiii. p. 49
count of M. De Luc's

Before we enter on the narrative, we have a considerable quantity of preliminary matter, animadverting on the leading points in which the two doctrines are at variance with each other. These are arranged under twenty-seven different heads, and may be considered as comprizing all the questions in dispute. One of the most important of them, and indeed one on which a great part of the controversy depends, refers to the means by which the surface of the earth acquired its present irregular form,—how it became diversified with hills and valleys,—and how the shores of the sea received the different indentations of bays and gulphs. Dr. Hutton and Mr. Playfair suppose that these irregularities were, for the most part, the work of some grand operations which are still going on; that the chief agents are the streams of rivers and the waters of the sea: that the rivers wash down the loose materials which lie in their course, and thus excavate the valleys; while at the same time the waves of the sea are not less actively employed in washing down the shores that are opposed to them: the solid matter which is carried off in both these cases being supposed to be deposited at the bottom of the ocean. To produce the present state of things, by such agents, must have required a very long series of ages: but this is admitted by the supporters of the doctrine, and is not considered as offering any objection to it. M. De Luc supposes, on the contrary, that the world acquired a form not materially different from that which it now exhibits, in consequence of some violent changes, or, as he calls them, catastrophes, at a period of no very great antiquity; that its hills and valleys, the irregularities of its coasts, and the general features of its surface, were then formed; and that the operation of rivers and of the waves of the sea, instead of being almost infinite in its effects, is very limited, and is daily diminishing. Valleys are conceived to have been original formations, and, instead of being excavated by rivers, to have been diminished by the sediment which these waters deposited in them. Those coasts which present a steep front to the sea were originally formed in this manner; since a flat shore, so far from being converted into a steep one by the depredations of the ocean, has rather a tendency to receive a continual accumulation of matter.

The arguments which the author adduces, to prove that valleys have not been formed by the rivers that run through them, appear indeed to be very forcible; and we must confess that, if we ought ever to feel decided on any geological question, they would go far towards producing conviction in our minds. He remarks that, if valleys had been merely cut through by streams of water, *the opposite sides of them would* exhibit sections of the same strata; that the gravel, or other stony matter which is found in valleys, would be of similar quality with the materials which compose their sides; that the opposite sides of valleys would exhibit a similarity in their height and form; that the sides of the excavation would bear a relative proportion to the bulk of the rivers which flow through them; that the declivities of the valleys, being produced by the action of an uniform cause, would be more uniform, and not, as we now perceive them, in some parts steep, and in others nearly level; and that, for the same reason, the variations which we observe in the width of the same valley could not have taken place. A still more direct objection to the hypothesis of the excavation of valleys is founded on the observation that, in many instances, the bed of the valley has been perceptibly raised by the depositions which the stream forms in it; so that, at least in these cases, it cannot be doubted that the hollow must have existed previously to the stream. In our review of the former work, we have mentioned the grand difficulty which is opposed to the hypothesis of Mr. Playfair, by the occurrence of lakes in the course of rivers; a difficulty which, notwithstanding the conjectures that have been adopted, still remains in full force. M. De Luc again brings forwards the existence of the large blocks of different kinds of stone, which are so profusely scattered over many parts of the continent, and again expatiates on the extreme improbability, or rather impossibility, of their having ever been brought to their present situation by the currents of rivers. He then offers some remarks on the other grand question in discussion, the formation of gulphs, and the different irregularities of the sea-coast. He shews that nearly the same kind of reasoning applies to them as to valleys; that an actual examination of them does not lead to the conclusion, that they have been formed either by rivers emptying themselves into the sea, or by the waves acting on the coast; and that many of them afford evident proofs that the effect of the water is rather to fill them up, than to increase them.

The general conclusion, to which these remarks lead, is that valleys and gulphs are not the effect of any cause now operating, but have been produced by some of those great revolutions in which the solid strata of the earth were brought into their present irregular and disjointed state. The valleys and other depressions were then formed, and the streams of water took their course through them, but rather tending to diminish them by depositions than to enlarge them by excavation. The accumulation of materials which have been in many cases added to the original beds of valleys, and to the original coasts of the sea, lead the author to recur to the opinion, on which he insisted in his former work, of the means which are thus afforded us for judging concerning the age of the world. The natural chronometers, as he terms them, coincide in reducing it to no very great antiquity; compared at least with that which has been assigned to it by Dr. Hutton.

In no one circumstance, as M. De Luc conceives, is the hypothesis of his opponents so defective as in respect to the scattered blocks, particularly of granite; and on this point he dwells at considerable length, both in the preliminary remarks and in the observations which he makes during his travels. He shews that the most random conjectures have been formed in order to account for their present situation; and he apprehends that every fact respecting them tends to prove that they were not conveyed from any distance, but 'that, at the birth of the continents, these masses were in some places where we at present see them.' We think, however, that in this instance, as is so often the case in geology, the author has been much more successful in overthrowing the opinions of his adversaries than in establishing his own. He has, as we conceive, satisfactorily proved that these blocks could not have migrated from any distance, yet they must have been brought into the present situation by some powerful cause; and the one assigned is that of explosion from the bowels of the earth. These explosions are not supposed to have been produced by fire, because nothing in the appearance of the substances indicates the operation of this agent, but by the re-action of expansible fluids mechanically compressed: the great revolutions, which the surface of the earth has experienced, being, according to the author, chiefly owing to the subsidence of parts of its surface into large internal cavities filled with expansible fluids.

> 'Now let us represent to ourselves the enormous *compression* exercised on these *fluids*, by the *subsidence* of masses so vast, that the changes of their *level* prepared for the future continents the *plains*, the *valleys* and *dales* among the *eminences*, and the *basins* of *lakes*; and we shall perceive that these *fluids* must, in the intervals of the large masses, through which they were compelled to escape, have possessed an *impulsive power*, fully capable of driving before them those fragments of the strata which we see on the surface; though the size of many of them be such, that no exterior force could move them, without the assistance of machines like those employed by Count CARBURI for the *block* at *St. Petersburg*.'

Our readers must judge of the plausibility of this supposition.

Another circumstance which M. De Luc regards as very important, both to the confirmation of his own hypothesis and more generally to the establishment of a correct view of geological phænomena, is that the sea has never altered its present level. This opinion he endeavours to confirm by numerous observations, made in the course of his travels along the shores of the Baltic and the German Ocean: but we have dwelt so long on his preliminary observations, that we must hasten to take some notice of the narrative part.

Commencing his route at Berlin, the author proceeded through Brandenburg and Mecklenburg to Rostock; hence he went along the coast of the Baltic to Wismar, Lubeck, Kiel, and Schleswig; from Schleswig he crossed the peninsula of Jutland and Husum; and after having examined this neighbourhood, he embarked for England. The objects, which occupied him during his journey, were principally those to which reference is made in the preliminary observations; the scattered blocks of granite, the partial filling up of valleys by the depositions of rivers, the still more considerable depositions which have been formed at the mouths of rivers and along the flat shores of the sea, the breaking down of steep cliffs, and the accumulation of a barrier at their feet, by which this operation is limited. He paid particular attention to the situation of lakes, in order to substantiate his opinion that they could not have been created by the excavation of streams; and he made many observations which tend to prove that all the streams which run into the Baltic, as well as the Baltic itself, have never materially altered their present level. In the vicinity of Strelitz, and in many other parts of Mecklenburg, are collections of peat-moss; and this circumstance led the author to make some remarks on the natural history of that substance, on its formation, and on the essential difference between peat and marsh. Almost all the lakes with which that country abounds are bordered with peat, and are gradually diminishing by its encroachments; in all cases it is easy to perceive the original border of the lake, and to ascertain the quantity of the encroachment. By observing the growth of the peat in all its different stages, the author has been enabled to give what appears to be a very satisfactory account of the process. Where the declivity of the bank is small, and the stream is slow, a belt of reeds first makes its appearance along the edge, raising their stalks above the surface of the water. These stalks serve to collect a portion of the sediment which the water contains, and thus to form a suitable bed for the growth of other aquatic plants; which again, in their turn, increase the quantity of matter, and add to the solidity of the stratum. In common situations, however, this process goes on very slowly, because in each successive season the vegetables are decomposed, and leave behind them scarcely any solid residuum. Here we are led to the essential distinction between marshes and mosses:

'*Reeds* have the same effect in the extension of *marsh* lands, on the borders of other lakes, and of some rivers; but they differ there in one respect from these which I am now describing, by continuing to grow over the whole breadth of such lands, till the soil is at last raised above the level of the water; because the other aquatic plants, which grow among them in summer, undergo an entire decomposition, and leave nothing remaining but a kind of mire. Now the essential distinction between *peat-mosses* and *marshes* consists in this: that, in the latter, the decaying vegetables proceed to the *putrid* decomposition, which extends to their *constituent molecules*, that is to say, those that constitute the *vegetable substance*; and their residuum possesses no longer the *combustible* faculty: whereas, in *peat-mosses*, the decomposition of vegetables goes no farther than to reduce them into those *molecules*; and thus the residuum, in this case, retains *combustibility*. And hence results another difference between *marshes* and *peat-mosses*: the neighbourhood of the former is unhealthy, because of the *miasmata* produced by the *putrid* decomposition; that of the *peat-mosses* is in no respect injurious to health, because the *constituent molecules* do not undergo that decomposition.'

The difference between marshes and peat-mosses, as to the state of the vegetable matter in them, the author attributes to the water of peat-mosses; which, by some cause that remains yet to be determined, acquires an antiseptic quality. This opinion is confessedly conjectural, but is plausible, and deserves farther investigation.

A minute account is given of the gradual progress by which this peat becomes converted into meadow-land; and from noticing it in all the different stages of the change, the conclusion appears to be fairly deduced that the waters of these lakes, in all cases, retain the same level which they originally possessed. Every observation tends to the same conclusion respecting the Baltic, that it maintains the same level now which it observed when the continents were formed. The chief argument, from which this conclusion is deduced, depends on the fact that the addition of peat in the one instance, and of new land in the other, is exactly on the same horizontal level with the line of original land. If the addition had depended on the subsidence of the waters, or even if they had been subsiding when the addition was made, it would necessarily have presented a sloping surface.

We cannot attempt to follow the author through his route, nor indeed to give an account of the different parts of it, but shall only remark that, after having examined the coast of the Baltic, and particularly noticed the operations which are going on at the mouths of rivers and in gulphs, he considers all his former geological positions and opinions as substantiated. The account with which the work concludes, of the coast of the German Ocean, is very interesting: but it is too long for quotation; and indeed we hope that our philosophical readers will be induced, from the remarks which we have made, to refer to the volume itself. We may observe concerning it that it possesses M. De Luc's characteristic qualities, both favourable and unfavourable; it is prolix, and sometimes tedious, but it bears the marks of accuracy and fidelity; and although the truths which it contains may be occasionally buried rather deep, yet they are worth the trouble of digging up and bringing to the surface.

Art. VII. *Poems* by William Robert Spencer. 8vo. 10s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1811.

The author of this well-printed volume has more than once been introduced to our readers, and is known to rank among that class of poetical persons who have never been highly favoured by stern criticism. The "mob of gentlemen who write with ease" has indeed of late years (like other mobs) become so importunate, as to threaten an alarming rivalry to the regular body of writers who are not fortunate enough to be either easy or genteel. Hence the jaundiced eye with which the real author regards the red Morocco binding of the presumptuous "*Littérateur*;" we say, *the binding*, for into the book itself he cannot condescend to look, at least not beyond the frontispiece.—Into Mr. Spencer's volume, however, he may dip farther, and will find sufficient to give him pleasure or pain, in proportion to his own candour. It consists chiefly of "*Vers de Société*," calculated to prove very delightful to a large circle of fashionable acquaintance, and pleasing to a limited number of vulgar purchasers. These last, indeed, may be rude enough to expect something more for their specie during the present scarcity of change, than lines to 'Young Poets and Poetesses,' 'Epitaphs upon Years,' Poems 'to my Grammatical Niece,' 'Epistle from Sister Dolly in Cascadia to Sister Tanny in Snowdonia,' &c.: but we doubt not that a long list of persons of quality, wit, and honour, "in town and country," who are here addressed, will be highly pleased with themselves and with the poet who has *shewn them off* in a very handsome volume: as will doubtless the 'Butterfly at the end of Winter,' provided that he is fortunate enough to survive the present inclemencies. We are, however, by no means convinced that the Bellman will relish Mr. S.'s usurpation of a 'Christmas Carol;'

Carol;' which looks so very like his own, that we advise him immediately to put in his claim, and it will be universally allowed.

With the exception of these and similar productions, the volume contains poems eminently beautiful; some which have been already published, and others that are well worthy of present publication. Of 'Leonora,' with which it opens, we made our report many years ago: (in Vol. xx. N. S. p. 451.) but our readers, perhaps, will not be sorry to see another short extract. We presume that they are well acquainted with the story, and therefore select one of the central passages:

'See, where fresh blood-gouts mat the green,
Yon wheel its reeking points advance;
There, by the moon's wan light half seen,
Grim ghosts of tombless murderers dance.
"Come, spectres of the guilty dead,
With us your goblin merris ply,
Come all in festive dance to tread,
Ere on the bridal couch we lie."

'Forward th' obedient phantoms push,
Their trackless footsteps rustle near,
In sound like autumn winds that rush
Through withering oak or beech-wood sere.
With lightning's force the courser flies,
Earth shakes his thund'ring hoofs beneath,
Dust, stones, and sparks, in whirlwind rise,
And horse and horseman heave for breath.

'Swift roll the moon-light scenes away,
Hills chasing hills successive fly;
E'en stars that pave th' eternal way,
Seem shooting to a backward sky,
"Fear'st thou, my love? the moon shines clear;
Hurrah! how swiftly speed the dead!
The dead does Leonora fear?
Oh God! oh leave, oh leave the dead!"'

Such a specimen of "the Terrible" will place the merit of the poem in a proper point of view: but we do not think that some of the alterations in this copy of Leonora are altogether so judicious as Mr. S.'s well-known taste had led us to expect. 'Reviving Friendship' (p. 5.) is perhaps less expressive than "Relenting," as it once stood; and the phrase 'ten thousand *furlowed* heroes' (ibid.) throws a new light on the heroic character. It is extremely proper that heroes should have 'furlows,' since school-boys have holidays, and lawyers have long vacations: but we very much question whether young gentlemen of the scholastic, legal, or heroic calling, would be flattered by any epithet derived from the relaxation of their respectable pursuits. We should feel some hesitation in telling an interesting youth, of any given battalion from Portugal, that he was a 'furlowed hero,' lest he should prove to us that his 'furlow' had by no means impaired his 'heroism.' The old epithet, "war-worn," was more adapted to heroism and to poetry; and, if we mistake not, it has very recently been superseded by an epithet which precludes "*otium cum dignitate*" from the soldier, without imparting either ease or dignity to the verse. Why is "horse and horsemen *pant* for breath" changed to '*heave* for breath,' unless for the alliteration of the too tempting aspirate? '*Heaving*' is appropriate enough to coals and to sighs, but panting *belongs* to successful lovers and spirited horses; and why should Mr. S.'s horse and horseman not have panted as heretofore?

The next poem in arrangement as well as in merit is the "Year of Sorrow;" to which we offered a tribute of praise in our 45th Vol. N.S. p. 288.—We are sorry to observe that the compliment paid to Mr. Wedgewood by a "late traveller," (see note, p. 50.) viz. that "an Englishman in journeying from Calais to Ispahan may have his dinner served every day on *Wedgewood's ware*," is no longer a matter of fact. It has lately been the good or evil fortune of one of our travelling department to pass near to Calais, and to have journeyed through divers Paynim lands to no very remote distance from Ispahan; and neither in the palace of the Pacha nor in the caravansera of the traveller, nor in the hut of the peasant, was he so favoured as to masticate his pilaff from that fashionable service. Such is, in this and numerous other instances, the altered state of the continent and of Europe, since the annotation of the "late traveller;" and on the authority of a *later*, we must report that the ware has been all broken since the former passed that way. We wish that we could efficiently exhort Mr. Wedgewood to send out a fresh supply, on all the *turnpike roads* by the route of Bagdad, for the convenience of the "latest travellers."

Passing over the 'Chorus from Euripides,' which might as well have slept in quiet with the rest of the author's school-exercises, we come to 'the Visionary,' which we gladly extract as a very elegant specimen of the lighter poems:

'When midnight o'er the moonless skies
Her pall of transient death has spread,
When mortals sleep, when spectres rise,
And nought is wakeful but the dead!

'No bloodless shape my way pursues,
No sheeted ghost my couch annoys,
Visions more sad my fancy views,
Visions of long departed joys!

'The shade of youthful hope is there,
That linger'd long, and latest died;
Ambition all dissolved to air,
With phantom honours at her side.

'What empty shadows glimmer nigh!
They once were friendship, truth, and love!
Oh, die to thought, to mem'ry die,
Since lifeless to my heart ye prove!'

We cannot forbear adding the beautiful stanzas in pages 166, 167:

'To the Lady ANNE HAMILTON.

'Too late I staid, forgive the crime,
Unheeded flew the hours;
How noiseless falls the foot of Time,
That only treads on flow'rs!

'What eye with clear account remarks
The ebbing of his glass,
When all its sands are di'mond sparks,
That dazzle as they pass?

'Ah! who to sober measurement
Time's happy swiftness brings,
When birds of Paradise have lent
Their plumage for his wings?'

The far greater part of the volume, however, contains pieces which can be little gratifying to the public: — some are pretty; and all are besprinkled with 'gems,' and 'roses,' and 'birds,' and 'diamonds,' and such like cheap poetical adornments, as are always to be obtained at no great expence of thought or of metre.—It is happy for the author that these *bijoux* are presented to persons of high degree; Countesses, foreign and domestic; 'Maids of Honour to Louisa Landgravine of Hesse D'Armstadt;' Lady Blank, and Lady Asterisk, besides ———, and ———, and others anonymous; who are exactly the kind of people to be best pleased with these sparkling, shining, fashionable trifles. We will solace our readers with three stanzas of the soberest of these odes:

'Addressed to Lady SUSAN FINCASTLE, now Countess of Dunmore.

'What ails you, Fancy? your'e become
Colder than Truth, than Reason duller!
Your wings are worn, your chirping's dumb,
And ev'ry plume has lost its colour.

'You droop like geese, whose cacklings cease
When dire St. Michael they remember,

Or like some *bird* who just has heard
That Fin's preparing for September?

'Can you refuse your sweetest spell
When I for Susan's praise invoke you?
What, sulkier still? you pout and swell
As if that lovely name would choke you."

We are to suppose that 'Fin preparing for September' is the Lady with whose 'lovely name' Fancy runs some risk of being 'choked;' and, really, if *killing partridges* formed a part of her Ladyship's accomplishments, both 'Fancy' and Feeling were in danger of a quinsey. Indeed, the whole of these stanzas are couched in that most exquisite irony, in which Mr. S. has more than once succeeded.—All the songs to 'persons of quality' seem to be written on that purest model, "the song by a person of quality;" whose stanzas have not been fabricated in vain. This sedulous imitation extends even to the praise of things inanimate:

'When an Eden zephyr hovers
O'er a slumb'ring cherub's lyre,
Or when sighs of seraph lovers
Breathe upon th' unfinger'd wire.'

If namby-pamby still leads to distinction, Mr. S., like Ambrose Phillips, will be "preferred for wit."

'Heav'n must hear—a bloom more tender
Seems to tint the wreath of May,
Lovelier beams the noon-day splendour,
Brighter dew-drops gem the spray!

'Is the breath of angels moving
O'er each flow'ret's heighten'd hue?
Are their smiles the day improving,
Have their tears enrich'd the dew?'

Here we have 'angels' tears,' and 'breath,' and 'smiles,' and 'Eden zephyrs,' 'sighs of seraph lovers,' and 'lyres of slumbering cherubs,' dancing away to 'the Pedal Harp!'—How strange it is that Thomson, in his stanzas on the Æolian lyre, (see the *Castle of Indolence*) never dreamed of such things, but left all these prettinesses to the last of the Cruscanti!

One of the best pieces in the volume is an 'Epistle to T. Moore, Esq.,' which, though disfigured with 'Fiends on sulphur nurst,' and '*Hell's chillest Winter*,' ("poor Tom's a'-cold!") and some other vagaries of the same sort, forms a pleasant specimen of poetical friendship.—We give the last ten lines:

'The triflers think your varied powers
Made only for life's gala bow'rs,

To smooth Reflection's mentor-frown,
Or pillow joy on softer down.—
Fools!—yon blest orb not only glows
To chase the cloud, or paint the rose;
These are the pastimes of his might,
Earth's torpid bosom drinks his light;
Find there his wondrous pow'r's true measure,
Death turn'd to life, and dross to treasure!'

We have now arrived at Mr. Spencer's French and Italian poesy; the former of which is written sometimes in new and sometimes in old French, and, occasionally, in a kind of tongue neither old nor new. We offer a sample of the two former:

' " QU'EST CE QUE C'EST QUE LE GENIE?"

' *Brillant est cet esprit privé de sentiment;*
Mais ce n'est qu'un soleil trop vif et trop constant,
Tendre est ce sentiment qu'aucun esprit n'anime,
Mais ce n'est qu'un jour doux, que trop de pluie abime!
Quand un brillant esprit de ses rares couleurs,
Orne du sentiment les aimables douleurs,
Un Phenomêne *en nait, le plus beau de la vie!*
C'est alors que les ris en se mêlant aux pleurs,
Font cet Iris de l'ame, *appellé le Genie!'*—

' *C'y gist un povre menestrel,*
Occis par maint ennuict cruel—
Ne plains pas trop sa destinée—
N'est icy que son corps mortel;
Son ame est toujours à Gillwell,
Et n'est ce pas là l'Elysée?'

We think that Mr. Spencer's Italian rhymes are better finished than his French; and indeed the facility of composing in that most poetical of all languages must be obvious: but, as a composer in Italian, he and all other Englishmen are much inferior to Mr. Mathias.—It is very perceptible in many of Mr. S.'s smaller pieces that he has suffered his English versification to be vitiated with Italian *concetti*; and we should have been better pleased with his compositions in a foreign language, had they not induced him to corrupt his mother-tongue. Still we would by no means utterly proscribe these excursions into other languages; though they remind us occasionally of that aspiring Frenchman who placed in his grounds the following inscription in honour of Shenstone and the Leasowes:

" See this stone
For William Shenstone—
Who planted groves rural,
And wrote verse natural!"

The above lines were displayed by the worthy proprietor, in the pride of his heart, to all English travellers, as a tribute of respect for the resemblance of his paternal chateau to the Leasowes, and a striking coincidence between Shenstone's versification and his own. — We do not mean to insinuate that Mr. Spencer's French verses (' *C'y gist un povre menestrel,*' with an Urn inscribed W.R.S. at the top,) are *precisely* a return in kind for the quatrain above quoted: but we place it as a beacon to all young gentlemen of poetical propensities on the French Parnassus. Few would proceed better on the Gallic Pegasus, than the Anglo-troubadour on ours.

We now take our leave of Mr. Spencer, without being blind to his errors or insensible to his merits. As a poet, he may be placed rather below Mr. Moore and somewhat above Lord Strangford; and if his volume meet with half their number of purchasers, he will have no reason to complain either of our judgment or of his own success.

ART. VIII. *Poems and Letters*, by the late William Isaac Roberts, of Bristol, deceased. With some Account of his Life. Crown 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

IT appears from this publication not only that the writer of the poems which it contains is deceased, but that, on the eve of his dissolution, he bequeathed them as a legacy to his sister, with all the profit that might accrue from their sale. Criticism would be half disarmed by such an appeal, even were the production possessed of merit that was much inferior to the claims of the present compositions: but these verses are, in many instances above mediocrity; and throughout the volume a tone of good and genuine feeling prevails, which we are truly pleased to find exemplified in the author's short but praiseworthy life.

W. J. Roberts was born at Bristol, in the year 1786; and being designed by his parents for trade, he was accordingly educated at a respectable academy in that city. His progress at school was marked by successful emulation, and by no means confined to commercial attainments. In drawing, and in poetry, he displayed an early taste; his passion for the latter accomplishment having been excited (as we well know it has often been in other instances) by "the tale of Troy divine," told in the matchless numbers of that Englishman who, throughout the world, may vindicate his title of "the first of Translators." The young aspirant to poetical honours, however, was destined to the humble drudgery of a clerk in a banking-house; and, entering into the employment of Messrs. Worrall and Co. (notwithstanding his reluctance to engage in such an occupation) he discharged the duties of his station in the most honourable manner. During this period, he became acquainted with the late Mr. Fox of Bristol, a gentleman of considerable learning, especially in oriental studies. From the society of this scholar, Roberts derived much benefit: he was stimulated to increase his acquaintance with the Latin language: he declared, about this time, his intention of mastering the Greek, Hebrew, and Arabic; and he had already made some progress in the acquisition of the Persian.—Nevertheless, by far the most estimable qualities of this young author's character were the uniform diligence of his attention to an irksome business, the sincerity and warmth of his attachment to his friends, and the dutiful affection which he so strongly evinced for all the inmates of his native home. One instance (which is enough to establish the justice of this last topic of commendation,) 'may be recorded,' says his editor, 'of the disinterestedness and affection of his conduct. He had been invited to join a friend who was then on an excursion to Oxford; and had obtained a week's leave of absence for that purpose. Oxford was perhaps the place that above all others he would have preferred visiting, and he had written to his friend to fix the day of his meeting him: but this letter was followed by another, in which he lamented that an unforeseen occurrence had prevented his journey. A disappointment so unexpected drew from his friend a request for an explanation. Roberts replied,—"To you I may confide my reason. The sum I had set aside for the expences of my journey is wanted at home." ' This estimable young man died of a consumption, in December 1806, in the twenty-first year of his age. He was buried in the churchyard of St. Michael, Bristol; where a modest and well-deserved inscription is engraved on the tomb which has been erected to his memory.

Having discharged our pleasing duty of commendation, and recorded the promising merits of the deceased poet, we must, however reluctantly, bestow that portion of censure on his editor, which he too manifestly requires. On the subject of publication, Roberts had expressed himself very diffidently; and indeed he seemed especially anxious to destroy the earlier and more imperfect monuments of his genius. In executing the will of his friend, therefore, his editor should have been very cautious not to admit any pieces into the collection, which (according to his own testimony — see the Advertisement, page 31.) 'the author, had he lived, would have revised or omitted.' This, at least, the editor states as probable; and he adds, 'the hand

friendship may surely be excused, if it has unwarily
a few weeds with the blossoms which compose this
wreath.'—We know not what to say to this : — it de-
censure, but it deserves it ; — and when we are en-
judge, from many passages in the poetical and prose
ions of the author, that his knowlege and his taste
easing with his years, we cannot think that any of his
orts should have been inserted in a volume which has
its appearance till six years after his death ; that is, at
when every opportunity for exercising the coolest
must have been afforded to his editor. We think,
that we have discovered sufficient cause for this re-
le indiscretion, in the bad taste of that gentleman, or
composition of whose preface augurs ill indeed for
ous performance of his or her editorial undertakings.
that extended' (says this personage, in the second para-
the preface,) 'only to the brief period of twenty
l which in its course was neither *disturbed by the aber-*
r distinguished by the excentricities that too often obscure
of genius, little scope is afforded to the biographical
—Again—'The hurry of employment—*the monotony of*
—and the cold calculation of interest, are in general
the young enthusiast to be "the leaven that lea-
whole lump." page 10. Some common-place senti-
introduced in the preface from a sort of exordium
erts prefixed to his will ; in which his poems are
few sparks struck from the flint of sorrow.' This
ve been omitted. So should the following passages
poems;—passages on which we animadvert, solely
w of deterring future editors of posthumous volumes
ing on their task with such an insufficient degree of
; and actuated by any thing but an intention of de-
he abilities of a very promising youth, or of check-
ulation of his interesting literary remains. What
end of the deceased, however, we say, would have
subjoined specimens of immature taste to appear

feeling ever nursed with dews,
rose of passion in thy soul :' p. 1.

ssical adviser should have been consulted, that such

ere wild *Octa*'s rugged brow'

ave disgraced the verses which bear the name of
as their title. (p. 3.) In page 4. we read the fol-
us bombast :

'While bands of spectres sweeping through the gloom,
Glare round thy couch, and frowning *stamp* thy doom!'

Whether with the fiat of fate, or the foot of the phantoms, the said doom is *stamped*, we are left to conjecture.

'When Fancy *with a sun-beam* drew
Serena's from in Hayley's mind'—page 6.

We confess that our *temper* submitted to a *triumph* over it, in spite of the sweetness of that of the heroine; and when in page 7. (in an Ode to Sensibility,) we read the following address to Sterne,

'By him who own'd thy strongest pow'r,
Who nightly sought thy hallow'd bow'r,
Before thy shrine to fall;
Who bade Lefevre's sorrows flow,
And wept Maria's madd'ning woe,
By Yorick's name I call!'

we thought of "the Fille de Chambre's ——", and we smiled. —We must, however, here do the author the justice to say that one of the strongest instances of his growing judgment was manifested on this very subject; for in his letters, page 187. he thus writes, indignantly and properly enough, on the hackneyed theme of 'sensibility;'—'Bowles has more readers than Milton; and the sickly whine which fashion has learnt from Sterne and his school, supplies the place of solid and weighty excellence. I love the force of pathos, and I acknowlege its merit; but I like not a languid feeling: let benevolence be courted instead of sentiment; and all that is great, noble, and generous, be the stamina of poetry.'

In page 9. we do not like 'woe *stabbing* a breast;' and '*Catallus*' in page 12. should have been corrected in a list of errata that might have been numerous, but which does not exist; or indeed the translation itself of Catullus might have been omitted, without any prejudice to the volume. The very measure condemns it. The elegiac lamentation of the Roman,

"*Multas per gentes, et multa per æquora vectus,*" &c. &c.

is poorly represented by

'O'er many a wild, o'er many a wave.'

'*The tyrtĕan song,*' page 244. with a little *t*, and a wrong accent to 'tyrtĕan,' and '*Idalia's favoured isle,*' p.13., are sad specimens of confusion, or rather of imperfect information. Ida*lium* was a town, and promontory, in the island of Cyprus, near to which stood a grove sacred to Venus. The '*Isle of Idalia*' is contiguous, we suppose, to Atalantis, or lies off the coast of Utopia.—'*Nor*bengian's plains,' page 17. (or, as we read in the notes, the desert of *Nou*bengian,) we are told is a 'province of Persia.' Messrs. Adams, Pinkerton, and Co. are inexcusable for omitting this province.—'*To gild a stigma*,' page 19., is absurd.—'Guilt's *en*phrenzied throbs,' ibid. is inflated and ungrammatical. 'To heaven again *return I'd never*,' page 29., is vulgar; and the lines 'to the Screech Owl,' page 55., should have been omitted: they are an aukward attempt at humour.—We waive any farther censures on the poems: but of the letters we have to observe that they contain several objectionable passages, which their editor ought to have suppressed. The frequent allusion to a defence of the doctrine and character of Mohammed, which the author had attempted in argument with one of his correspondents, (although he earnestly deprecates any idea of comparing Mohammedanism with Christianity,) was injudiciously inserted, as the defence itself does not appear.—Indeed, we find various allusions to subjects, names, and places, which are perfectly unintelligible to any reader out of the small circle of the author's acquaintance.—We cannot admire *the taste* of any admirer of Fuseli's paintings, *sublime* as the *genius* of that school must be allowed to be: to whose founder we may perhaps apply the noblest eulogy that ever was bestowed on a poet, whatever may be thought of the painter who deserves it either by the extravagance or the rapidity of his compositions:

> "*Existence saw him spurn her bounded reign,*
> *And panting Time toil'd after him in vain.*"

We must again reprobate the young author's deficiency in judgment, for eternally recurring to the cant-phraseology of the '*buds and blossoms of Parnassus*,' &c.; and we do not perceive the full beauty of the metaphor or figure in page 210., where Pitt is represented as '*placing his foot upon the heart of his country, insensible to her agony, while his eye was fixed upon the star of Glory*'!!!—'*To luxuriate in the echo of an Anacreontic strain*,' page 218., is equally beyond our narrow comprehension: '*A* stamina of principle,' page 201., surprized us, after the proper use of the Latin term in another passage; and the *deep feeling* of the subjoined rhapsody lies below the reach of our penetration: 'I never experience poetic vigour during summer. *It is the red moon of Autumn, when she looks dim from her cloud of storms, that awakens in my soul the visions of poetic fancy.*' "This is affectation!" according to our humble conception; and although the author enters the lists with Johnson, and endeavours to shew that genius has its periodical ebbings and flowings, we venture to take part against Mr. Roberts, and to declare our opinion that the "*mens sana in corpore sano*" is all that is wanting for exertion at any season of the year.—The quotation from Crashaw, p. 214. is (we *think*) most ludicrously passed over without ridicule :— nay, it is recommended to the notice of a friend !—

"*On the infant Martyrs.*

"To see both blended in one flood,
The mother's milk, the children's blood,
Makes me doubt if heav'n will gather
Roses hence or lilies rather." *Crashaw.*

Mr. Roberts, indeed, seems altogether too fond of our old writers, good, bad, and indifferent: but this is a subject to which we shall have better opportunities of recurring.

With the above exceptions, we have met with much to approve in these letters. The writer was evidently advancing daily in knowlege; and his warmth of heart and rectitude of disposition are manifest in every page. An admirable letter to his sister occurs, which was written in a blank leaf of Hannah More's "Strictures on Female Education :" but we rather chuse to select a favourable specimen from his poems. The last stanza of the quotation betrays a close imitation of Collins :— but, on the whole, the verses do credit to the taste and feeling of the writer:

'Elegy written at Clifton.

'The moon-beam glimmers on the hill,
Slow rising o'er it's gloomy breast;
And all the shadowy scene is still,—
All but the sufferer, sinks to rest,

'Oh! let not mirth disturb the hour,
That's sacred to the silent tear;
But let some wand'ring minstrel pour,
The strain that sorrow loves to hear.

'For now tho' thoughtless Joy may sleep,
I hear the lonely mourner's tread;
And many a mother wakes to weep,
Her only hope and comfort fled!

'For here full many a child of Love,
In pride of Beauty's bloom has died;
And here the spirits of the grove,
O'er many a kindred form have sigh'd.

'Emma, these wild-wood rocks among,
Caught the low summons of the tomb;
She saw it's angel glide along,
And heard him whisper—"Emma, come!"

'Here would she roam at close of day,
To view the sun's departing light;
And as she watch'd the sinking ray,
Would bless the visionary sight.

'Yet her mild eye would often speak,
 That o'er her hung the funeral wreath;
And every smile that flush'd her cheek,
 Proclaim'd the hidden power of Death!

'Where rests thy head, thou loveliest maid!
 Long shall the murmuring willow wave;
And fairy harps beneath it's shade,
 Shall tune the dirge that charms the grave!'

A spirited sketch of a poem on the plan suggested by Gibbon in his Decline and Fall, (Vol. i. p. 391.) appears at p. 100.

We can only add that a numerous list of subscribers is prefixed to the volume; and that we heartily wish it all the success which it deserves from the public.

Art. IX. *The Life of William Waynflete, Bishop of Winchester, Lord High Chancellor of England in the Reign of Henry VI., and Founder of Magdalen College, Oxford. Collected from Records, Registers, Manuscripts, and other authentic Evidences.* By Richard Chandler, D.D. Formerly Fellow of that College. Royal 8vo. pp. 450. and Five Plates. 18s. Boards. White and Cochrane. 1811.

The history of English culture still awaits the hand of an accomplished and philosophic antiquary. It does not appear that our Roman conquerors were at all sollicitous to diffuse the knowlege of letters. They imported such administrative skill as was deemed requisite, and left it to the barbarians to seek on the continent that instruction which they might discover to be profitable. The Druids had schools in the south-west of England: but the Gothic population of the eastern coast owed its first tuition to the Christian missionaries. Hence the history of our schools and colleges is become a department of the ecclesiastical annalist.

Among the most praise-worthy attempts of our Catholic ancestors to prepare the ascent of the country from barbarism to refinement, may be numbered the endowments, so frequent among their prelates, of places of education. Indeed, the earlier monasteries may all be considered as colleges, since a vow of celibacy formed no part of the obligation of their inmates before the end of the seventh century *. Unhappily, it is less the facility of instruction than the demand for it, which secures the attention of the people. In peaceful times, when commerce and the arts connected with it are advancing, the young are eager to acquire the rudiments of language and calculation, and can always hire masters. In military periods, when armies consume in a generation the accumulations of a century of industry; idleness and ignorance are as regularly progressive. Institutions, however, have this advantageous property, that they carry farther the mass of acquirement, than it would be extended by the mere social demand; and that they retain and preserve, in unfavourable circumstances, a considerable stock of knowlege. They cheapen, they defend, they *intensify* learning; and all this is more than an equivalent for the injury which may arise from their connection with specific creeds, and from their fatiguing adhesion to antiquated prejudices or refuted doctrines.

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* See Eichhorn, *Geschichte der Cultur*, Vol. ii. p. 193.

The colleges, which have been combined into national universities, derive from their superior influence a stronger claim to attract the microscopic eye of the antiquary. Those who attain eminence scatter along their path a retrospective brightness; and the darlings of fame, like angels, illuminate out of themselves every scene through which they have passed. Their phosphorescence is contagious, and gilds their cradle and their school-room. The aisle becomes hallowed in which peripatetic genius strayed to meditate; and its founder acquires a veneration proportioned to the multiplicity of excellence which it has sheltered.

That Magdalen-college, Oxford, should find among its fellows a biographer of the founder, is less a matter of surprize than that any college should neglect the performance of so natural and pious a duty. The Life of William Waynflete now before us is the work of the late Dr. Richard Chandler; who, shortly before his death, consigned the manuscript for publication to the editor, Mr. Charles Lambert. The biography itself had long been completed, and had been circulated among the fellows of Magdalen-college for emendatory animadversions, additional illustrations, and applicable documents. To Mr. Loveday, Mr. Churton, Mr. Blackstone, Dr. Routh, and others, literary obligations are acknowleged: but Dr. Wilson's papers are mentioned with a studied slight, (p. xii.) which might almost excite a suspicion of plagiarism that was intended to be concealed. Some drawings, some notes, and some extracts from manuscript records, were first obtained by the editor, which are properly and distinctly inserted in the places to which they belong.

In 1602, a Life of Waynflete was printed in quarto by Dr. Budden, which attained a second edition in 1681. The declamatory tone of its style forms a singular contrast with the dry minuteness of the antiquarian materials. It is like attempting to mould a relievo with the sand-grains of an ant-hill.—A deficiency of dates, also, was a fault in Budden's work which it was time to supply. More of civil history is requisite now, in proportion as we attend less to those times. New sources of information were to be explored, since the manuscript records of our forefathers have been collected, catalogued, and rendered accessible. All this has been done with meritorious industry and propriety by Dr. Chandler.

The first chapter treats of the name of Waynflete's father. Dr. C. decides for two names, Patten, alias Barbour. In our judgment, Patten was the father's name, and his profession was that of a barber-surgeon; which was no mean occupation in those times, when the practice of medicine in great part, and all the operations of surgery, were intrusted to the barber. If it were, however, a mean occupation, so much the more glorious would be the rise of Waynflete. The church has the merit of having always served as a link between the higher ranks and the lower; of having opened its proudest dignities to the humblest origin; of having valued scholastic learning as personal nobility; and of viewing, as with the eye of God, all men as originally equal, and only to be eventually distinguished by their deeds. Let the present question be decided as it may, and whether the name of Waynflete's father was derived from an ornament of the face or of the foot, the son, according to the fashion of the age, (p. 11.) dropped it on his graduation, and took the name of the parish in which he was born.

Chapter II. Waynflete had the good *fortune* (it is the term which a biographer must assign to occult causes) to please Henry Beaufort, the preceptor of Henry VI., and then Bishop of Winchester. He consequently gave to Waynflete the governorship of a leper's hospital in the neighbourhood of Winchester, which was dedicated to Saint Mary Magdalen. Possibly, Waynflete's skill in his father's profession was his peculiar recommendation to this first preferment, which influenced the denomination of the college that he afterward founded.

Bekyngton, through his knowlege of the civil law, and through the favour of Archbishop Chicheley, was a rising man at the court of Henry VI.; and he assisted in carrying upwards along with him his friend Waynflete. They had been schoolfellows at Winchester; and it was to him that Waynflete owed the invitation to become provost of the then new college at Eton. This situation had, in the case of Stamberry the first provost, led to a bishopric, and was destined again to effect this elevation in Waynflete's favor. On the death of Cardinal Beaufort in April, 1447, Waynflete obtained from the king the *congé d'élire*, or *leave to elect*, addressed to the chapter of Winchester. The ensuing ceremony is well described:

> 'After the mass *de Spiritu Sancto* had been solemnly performed at the high altar in the church of St. Swythin, and a bell tolled according to custom, the prior, the sub-prior, the archdeacon of Winchester, and that of Surry by his proxy, with thirty-seven brethren, all professed monks and in holy orders, except three, who were young, met in the chapter-house. The word of God was then propounded, and they implored devoutly the divine grace by singing the hymn, "*Veni Creator Spiritus.*" A protestation against the presence or voting of any unqualified person was read by the Prior, and the constitution general "*Quia propter,*" by Dr. Wilton. Immediately when this was done, they all without any debate, on a sudden, with one accord, the Holy Ghost, as they firmly believed, inspiring them, directed their suffrages to Waynflete, and elected him, as it were, with one voice and one spirit, for their bishop and pastor; and instantly singing *Te Deum*, and causing the bells to ring merrily, they went in procession to the high altar of the church, where Dr. Wilton, by their order, published the transaction in the vulgar tongue to a numerous congregation of the clergy and people. The Sub-prior and another monk were deputed to wait on Waynflete at Eton college with the news of his election. From sincere reluctance, or a decent compliance with the fashion of the times, he protested often and with tears, and could not be prevailed on to undertake the important office to which he was called, until they found him, about sun-set, in the church of St. Mary; when he consented, saying, he would no longer resist the divine will.'

Chapter III. relates the Founding of Magdalen Hall by Bishop Waynflete. — Chapter IV. Of Bishop Waynflete until his becoming Lord High Chancellor of England.— Chapter V. The Founding of Magdalen College. — Chapters VI. and VII. Of Bishop Waynflete under Edward the fourth.—Chapter VIII. The settling of Magdalen College. — Chapter IX. Of Bishop Waynflete under Richard the Third; and of his building and endowing the chapel and school-house at Wayneflete in Lincolnshire. — Chapter X. Of Magdalen College, Oxford. — Chapter XI. Death of Waynflete. — Chapters XII., XIII., and XIV. Of the chapel erected by Waynflete, of his tomb, of the proceedings at Magdalen college after his death, and of the subsequent benefactors to that institution.

We insert the description of Magdalen College, from Chapter X.

> 'Waynflete expended a considerable sum on the embattled wall now inclosing the grove, the alterations of the hospital, and the fabric of his college; which has undergone some changes in a long series of years, not to mention the additional buildings, but still exists a curious monument of the age in which it was erected.

'The portal or grand entrance of the quadrangle is decorated with the statues of the two founders of the hospital and college, and of their patron-saints; Waynflete kneeling in prayer; King Henry the Third; Mary Magdalen; and St. John Baptist. These all again occur, in small but elegant figures, over the great or western door of the chapel; Waynflete kneeling as before, and as he is represented on the seals of the hall and college; with Bishop Wykeham on his right hand, (which is remarkable,) and Mary Magdalen in the middle. On each side of the chapel-door, near the cloister, is an angel carved in relievo, holding a scroll, with difficult characters painted and gilded; one with the motto of the founder, (*ff* denoting F) *ffecit mihi magna qui potens est!* the other with a passage from Gen. xxviii. 17. *Hic est domus Dei et porta celi;* which was formerly exhibited by an angel in like manner near the entrance of the chapel at New College. In the center of the arch of the stone-roof by this door is a small figure of an aged Bishop in his pontificals, with a cross raised in his left hand, the fingers of his right disposed according to the usage of the Roman church in giving the benediction. He is between two angels with wings, such as may be seen supporting the arms of Waynflete in the cloister, by the library, and in various other places. Portraits or busts of Kings and Bishops, now disregarded and without a name, adorn the inside of the chapel and hall, both of which are spacious and handsome. Grotesque or emblematical figures, not understood by Dr. Budden, are disposed round the quadrangle. The spouts, roofs, windows and doors, have their carve-work. Toward the street is a monk with a cowl; as has been noticed, I think, at Lincoln or some other college. Among the armorial bearings are the royal, the rose with a radiated sun or star, the plume of ostrich feathers, the portcullis, and those of the see of Winchester and of the founder. The initials of his name (W. W.) occur in cypher; and his favourite lilies are frequently introduced.

'The magnificence as well as piety of Waynflete was displayed in the chapel. The windows, after the fashion which had prevailed from the time of Henry the Fourth, were adorned with portraits and painting on the glass. It was rich in missals, manuals, martyrologies, antiphonaries, and books of devotion, some finely ornamented; in crosses gilded or set with precious stones, some inclosing a portion of the real wood; in chalices, of which one was given by president Mayew, and another by master Thomas Kerver; and in all sorts of sacred utensils, many valuable for the materials and of curious workmanship, in copes and sacerdotal vestments, some of damask, velvet and gold tissue, of various colours, decorated with pearls, and embroidered, some with the arms of Waynflete, some with lilies and other flowers, with birds, animals, and devices; with images representing angels and holy persons, the crucifixion, and scriptural stories; besides canopies, curtains, standards, streamers, linen, and a multiplicity of articles used by the Romish church in great abundance for the high altar, and the altars in the nave of the chapel, in all six; and for the chapel of the president. Two inventories of these sacred effects are extant; and mention is made of oblations before the image of St. Mary Magdalen, which probably graced the high altar.'

Such are the contents of the historical part of this volume; to which a diplomatic appendix of thirty-three several documents, various elegant engravings, and a copious index, are attached.

This book is written with *formal* but not with *lucid* order. The subdivision of the chapters into sections has not precluded all confusion of topic; and the events follow, but do not grow out of one another. The marvellous micrology of detail seldom amounts to completeness of information. We see the petty touches of the Dutch painter, enough to indicate years of industry, and yet some vacant spaces yawn before the eye. The style also wants perspicuity; not merely because it is full of those old words which are the appropriate garb of old things, but because disconnected ideas are frequently connected by the grammatical construction; — it betrays a real deficiency of distinctness in the thought. The whole manifests, however, the patient virtues of the antiquary; the emmet crawling over the grave-stone, and loitering on the lichen as patiently as on the legend.

ART. X. Mr. Bentham's *Theory of Punishments and Rewards,* edited in French by M. Dumont.

[*Article continued from the Rev. for Dec. p.* 36.]

IN the former part of this article, we requested our readers not to regard the volume offered to their attention as light reading, and corroborated our notice by a passage from the editor's preface; without sufficiently adverting, perhaps, to the different situation of an editor fatigued by his labours, and that of a reader who is perusing a complete performance. It was not in our contemplation, however, to represent the work before us as uninviting or abstruse, since nothing would have been more opposite to the fact and to our own feelings; for a didactic essay with more of interest, which is read with more facility, and is comprehended with so little of effort, has rarely fallen into our hands. To be understood, it requires only ordinary abilities and ordinary attention. It supposes the reader to be an entire stranger to the subject, and takes nothing on trust; every step is made good, and no conclusion is laid down till all the grounds of it are rendered clear. It displays, indeed, great ingenuity: but all the devices which that ingenuity suggested are imparted to the reader, and by the help of them a very scientific treatise is perused with almost as much ease as a romance or a book of travels. By communicating these devices, the author has perhaps made a sacrifice of vulgar fame to the interests of the reader, and the approbation of goo judges; a consideration which, in the course of the work, properly noticed by the editor.

When the circumstances attending this publication are considered, it may naturally be supposed that, however excellen may be the matter, it must be deficient in manner: but ever page of the work shews this apprehension to be groundles Yet we see nothing that painfully indicates joint labour; s fully is the editor possessed of the thoughts and spirit of th author, that all persons would conclude they were his own and so happy and appropriate are the expressions, that w should suppose them to have sprung up together with th ideas. Indeed, so well in the present instance has this nov division of labour succeeded, that we should not regret to se a similar phænomenon again occur; for it is new, we apprehend, in the literary world, for a consummate performance t be produced in the manner in which this has been accomplished, where one person has furnished the matter and anothe the living form. As a specimen of masterly reasoning, and superior moral analysis, without reference to the subject o which it treats, it claims the careful perusal of the genera scholar; while it presents higher claims to the attention o those who cultivate active benevolence, and who are ambitiou of conferring benefits on society. We cannot testify in too warn terms our gratitude to the editor, for the unspeakable pain which he appears to have taken to render the execution of thi treatise as admirable as the matter, and in which we conside him as having completely succeeded. It were indeed strange that work were uninviting, in which the subject is of th highest moment; in which the benevolent feelings are strongl impressed; in which the manner of treating it is as original a it is able; in which the method is natural, the style is appropriate, and the arrangement is luminous; in which interestin scenes of real life are introduced, and painted in the livelie manner; and in which the discussion is elucidated by abundance of rare and curious facts. The work falls as much a any that is published within the course of general reading, an claims the attentive perusal of every well-meaning and enlightened individual; combining for such persons, in a high degree, entertainment with instruction.

In entering on the consideration of the various kind of punishments which have prevailed in different ages, an among different nations, the author again enumerates th several tests by which he purposes that they should be trie These tests are to be reckoned among the devices to whic we have just alluded, and which as much promote the instruction

tion of the reader as they display the ingenuity of their author. Their extreme simplicity will not prejudice them in the judgment of any intelligent man: but, before he can judge of their value, use must be made of them; and his mind must be well possessed of them before he can perceive on what high ground they at once place him with regard to the present subject. The tests which Mr. B. lays down are, *Certainty* and *Equality*, *Divisibility*, or being susceptible of more or less; *Commensurability with other Punishments*, *Analogy to the Offence*, *Exemplariness*, *Remissibility*, or a capacity to receive reparation, *Tendency to reform*, *Profit to the injured Party*, *Simplicity of Denomination*, and *Popularity*.

These criteria, it is admitted, are not all equally important, and no punishment can unite all the requisites which they point out. In regard to great offences, it is stated that we should principally look to example and analogy; that, in the minor offences, economy and the tendency to reform should be consulted; while in those which affect property, we should not lose sight of compensation.

Mr. Bentham considers corporeal punishments under the three heads of *Simple Afflictive*, *Complex Afflictive*, and *Restrictive*. Of the first, he observes that they are certain and divisible, but are unequal; that, on account of the ignominy which is inseparable from them, they are incapable of general application, the ignominy in no degree depending on the intensity of the pain but on the condition of the sufferer; and that in the present state of the civilized nations of Europe, there can be no instance of a punishment of this sort which is light, if applied to a person who is not of the lowest order. 'The barbarism of the antient criminal code of Russia arose out of inattention to this circumstance. In the reigns which preceded that of Catharine II., neither sex nor rank was exempted from the whip and the knout. Peter the First, it is well known, caused ladies of the first rank to be chastised in this manner; and the laws in that country remain to this day the same, though their application has been very much limited.' Were any reformer to propose the revision of these laws, would the chief justice and judges of Russia strenuously oppose the attempt?

'Similar barbarism (continues the Author) prevailed in Poland down to the time of its subversion. It was by no means uncommon to behold the maids of honor of a princess chastised in this way by the master of the household, in the presence of all the family; while, in the houses of the grandees, poor gentlemen, of whom the attendants were composed, were frequently caned and cudgelled; and a judgment may hence be formed of the treatment which the inferior class experienced.

'Nothing proves so completely the degraded state of the people of China, as the flagellation which their magistrates are for ever practising. Mandarins of the first order, and princes of the blood, are liable equally with the lowest peasant to the bamboo.'

It is here justly observed that these punishments have more of a tendency to intimidate than to reform, except when connected with a penitentiary diet; a regulation which is much considered, and on which great stress is laid by the author in another part of the work, in connection with imprisonment. Mr. Bentham relates that the Empress Maria Theresa, having in view the amelioration of the laws of her empire, had a work compiled which contained a description of all the tortures and punishments that were in use in her dominions. It was a folio volume, containing not only descriptions and engravings of all the machines employed, but accounts of all the subordinate operations to which they were applied. The book, however, had been on sale for a few days only, when Prince Kaunitz, then first minister, caused it to be suppressed. He was of opinion that such a book would inspire a horror for the laws; and that this would particularly be the case with the part of it which described the various modes of torture. Not long afterward, however, torture was abolished in all the Hereditary States; and it is probable, says Mr. B., that the publication of this work might in some degree contribute to so desirable an event.

Mr. Bentham gives the designation of *complex afflictive* corporeal punishments to the more remote and permanent effects of acts of punishment; such as the alteration or destruction of the visible qualities or organs of the body. By the common law of England, many offences were punished by mutilations: but, it is truly stated, they have fallen into disuse. Similar punishments were very common in Russia, and were inflicted without distinction of rank or sex, while capital punishments have been always very rare in that empire. If reason does not directly condemn some of the punishments proposed under this head, our feelings almost invariably revolt from them; and we are glad to find the author declare against them, except in the cases of very grave crimes. To mutilations, in all events, we own that we have a great dislike; and even in the case in which the author seems most desirous to have a punishment of this sort introduced, we think that many objections lie against it, and that it would not be difficult to substitute a punishment more eligible. The consideration which seems principally to influence the author is analogy: but we have already observed that, in our judgment, analogy is in this respect a barren source, although so highly commended by Montesquieu : but this is not the only instance in which that excellent writer hazards a brilliant thought on very slight examination. In taking this view of analogy, we do not conceive that we differ materially from the present author himself.

Restrictive punishments are included in the general term *local confinement.* They impose a restraint on the loco-motive faculty; and are, imprisonment, a prohibition to remain at the person's usual residence, the *relegatio* of the civil law, confinement to a particular residence, a prohibition of such residence, and banishment. — Imprisonment is considered as either simple or penal. The simple imprisonment should not exceed its object, which is that of securing the person. — In respect to penal imprisonment, Mr. Bentham is of opinion that the more severe it is, the better it answers its object. If the punishment be prolonged, but made light, it is to be feared that the sufferer may become habituated to it, and little regard it. This abuse, although somewhat corrected in our own laws, still exists in them in a high degree.

Mr. Bentham thinks that, if we render the punishment more severe, and shorten it, the sum total of suffering will be less. Instead of weakening painful sensations by dispersing them over a surface of long but mild imprisonment, it will be more adviseable to concentrate them in a narrow space where the imprisonment is rigorous. The same quantity of suffering will be far more effectual; while the inconveniences with respect to the future will be much fewer in the one than in the other case. Under a long course of confinement, the faculties become enervated, industry long suspended is weakened, the trade of the individual suffers, his business passes into other hands, and the opportunities of advancing his fortune are gone. All these contingent evils, which are pure losses, and which have no effect with a view either to reformation or to example, are avoided by the method of short rigorous imprisonment.

The succeeding pages demand the reader's particular attention. In these the author sets forth the necessary inconveniences which arise from imprisonment, next states such as are accessary to it, and then enumerates those that result from the abuse of it. In this short compass, he has compressed the substance of a volume; and the reader, who well digests what is here offered to him, will have a complete view of this complex subject. The felicity of this short representation we very much admire.

Submitting the punishment of imprisonment to the tests which we have before stated, Mr. B. admits that, as far as it regards security, it is perfect; while in point of œconomy it is highly objectionable, since it not only requires a considerable sum to maintain the prisoner, and occasions the entire loss of all the gains which he would otherwise have realised during the time of his confinement, but since it very frequently abolishes those habits of industry which he before possessed. With respect to equality, it is also eminently defective. Its *inequality* is most striking in the cases of a valetudinarian and a healthy person, of the father of a family and a single man, of one who is accustomed to every species of enjoyment and of one who has always lived in misery: but, although thus unequal, Mr. B. justly observes that it has a considerable effect on all men. No person can be insensible to the privation of liberty and to the interruption of habits, and, above all, his social habits. This punishment the author admits to be faultless in respect to divisibility; and it would, he thinks, be eminently exemplary on the plan which he proposes. 'The aspect alone,' he tells us, 'of the habitation of penitence, ought to strike the imagination, and awake a salutary terror. The buildings destined for this purpose ought to have a character suited to their nature, which should give the idea of confinement and of constraint, and preclude all hope of escape; they ought, as it were, to enuntiate, "Behold the residence of crime."'

In the simplicity of its description, this punishment cannot be exceeded. The word prison is perfectly comprehended by persons of all ages and degrees.

This species of punishment, the author says, in order to have its utmost efficacy, should in certain circumstances and for a limited time be accompanied by three other sorts of punishments, those of *solitude*, *obscurity*, and a given *diet*. Beccaria has said, "*Non é l'intenzione della pena, che fa il maggior effetto sull'animo umano, ma l'estenzione de essa; perchè la nostra sensibilità è più facilmente, e stabilmente mossa da minime, ma replicate impressioni, che da un forte, ma passagero movimento.*" (Dei Delitti e Delle Pene, sect. 16.) This position is carried to an undue extent by the Italian philosopher, as is elsewhere shewn by Mr. Bentham: but, properly limited, it is founded in the philosophy of the mind, is an important and practical maxim, and pervades the whole of Mr. Bentham's reasoning on this subject.

> 'Amendment,' he says, 'depends less on the greatness of the punishment, than on the association which the mind forms between it and the crime. It is in this view that solitary punishment excells. Acute pains, while inflicted, leave no room for reflection. The actual suffering absorbs the whole attention. If any mental emotion

mixes itself with the physical pain, it is a feeling of resentment against the accuser and the judge. When the torment ceases, and the sufferer is set at liberty, he does all in his power to forget the pain, and every thing around him tends to banish from his mind those reflections on which reformation depends. The pain is at an end, and is succeeded by a sensation of lively joy which is little favourable to amendment: but, in a state of solitute, man left to himself does not feel those emotions to which society gives birth; he has no longer that variety of ideas which results from the conversation of his equals, from the view of external objects, and from the pursuit of his affairs and his pleasures. Deprive him of light, and the number of his impressions will be still farther diminished; his mind then becomes a void; he loses the support which he derives from his passions; and he feels his weakness. Let moderate abstinence be farther interposed, and the vigorous activity which is found in ardent temperaments is deadened, and a languor highly favorable to moral reflections is superinduced; while this state of pain is not sufficient wholly to occupy his mind, and to take from him the power of reflecting on his situation: on the contrary, he feels more than ever the need of calling to his aid all the ideas which his present condition suggests, and he naturally falls into that train which presents to his mind the events, the evil councils, and the first steps that led to the crime, the chastisement of which he is enduring; a crime of which all the pleasures are past, and which has left behind it only the evil consequences which he is suffering. He recalls to view those days of innocence and security which he formerly enjoyed, and contrasts them with his new situation. His regrets fix themselves on his past errors; and if he has a wife and children, and near relations, sentiments of affection towards them revive in his mind, accompanied by remorse on account of the ills which he has occasioned to them. The state of mind thus created is particularly favourable to religious influence. In the entire absence of all pleasures and external impressions, the thoughts of religion assume a new empire over the soul. Struck with his misfortune, and with the combination of events and circumstances which brought his offence to light, his thoughts are led to that Providence, which has caused all his precautions to fail. He considers that if it be God who punishes, God can save; and he then reflects on the promises and threats of the same infinite Being; promises which open a perspective of endless happiness to the penitent, and denunciations which in his case seem already begun to be realized in the dark and dismal solitude in which he finds himself. A man must be cast in a different mould from other men, if he refuses all access to religious feelings in a situation so full of gloom. Darkness alone has a strong tendency to dispose the mind to conceive of or to imagine the presence of invisible beings. Whatever may be the reason of it, the fact is incontestible, and is universally admitted. When the sensitive faculty is without action, the imagination labours, and begets phantoms. The early impressions of infancy, spirits and ghosts, revive in solitude. This may be a reason that such a state should not be too much prolonged, because it may turn the brain, and produce an incurable melancholy: but the first effects which it occasions are good.

concerning the idea of a God, the truth of revelation, and the authenticity of the testimonies on which it rests. We have not in these places any Manichees, Hobbists, or Spinosists, nor any dogmatic professors of infidelity; no subtil disciples of Boulanger, Bayle, or Freret: but the arguments have only the more effect from being suited to the capacity of the audience; the buffooneries of a humorous profligate will be sufficient logic for his comrades; a satire on the ministers of religion will be a complete refutation of religion itself; and the boaster, who will loudly maintain that the base only suffer themselves to be intimidated by the threats of a future life, touches on a string with which the whole auditory is sure to be pleased.'

According to Mr. Bentham's opinion, three sorts of prisons should be established; the first for insolvent debtors, who are proved to have been guilty of no temerity or prodigality, and the prison for these persons should be one of mere detention: the second should be for malefactors, condemned to a temporary imprisonment; and the third, for those whose imprisonment is to be perpetual. The prison for detention should be for no other object; the second sort of prison should serve for correction and example; and to detention, hard labour should here be added. On the residents of the perpetual prison, should be inflicted a permanent mark of infamy. A decisive difference should exist between the prisons, which should be manifested by their external appearance, by the dress of the inmates, and by the names of the places. The one the author would call simply the house of confinement; the second, the penitentiary prison; and the last, the black prison.

With the same ability and originality, Mr. B. treats the subjects of local confinement and of punishments merely restrictive. Queen Anne of Austria is said to have at once enacted and inflicted a punishment of this kind, which may be considered as very appropriate. Madame *de Montbason* had grossly misbehaved herself towards the Princess of Orange; of which the Queen being informed, she ordered that Madame should never appear at any assembly at which the Princess was present.

'The laws of England' (says Mr. Bentham) 'offer some examples of restraints imposed on persons who are not considered as delinquents. All who refuse to take the sacrament, according to the ceremonies of the Church of England, are excluded from public offices; though, in point of fact, many persons not of the Church of England hold civil and military employments under the bill of indemnity which is annually passed. It is a precarious security, but the usage of a century takes away all distrust.

'These restrictions are not set up as punishments, but are considered as precautions, to prevent individuals of a certain persuasion from holding situations in which it is feared they would be dangerous.

This at least is the reason assigned; while religious animosity was the original cause of it, it was an act of antipathy.

'Another motive is Interest. The exclusion of the one is the benefit of the other of the two parties. The right, by being restricted to a less number, becomes more advantageous to those who enjoy it; and thus that which originated in religious hatred is maintained by injustice. An erring conscience set persecution on foot, and the love of gain and avarice continue it when the original motive has ceased. This is exactly the case of Ireland, where restrictive laws towards the Catholics are maintained in order to benefit the Protestants, and in which one million out of four holds a monopoly of power and lucrative places. When the persecuting laws are become privileges to the persecutors, it is extremely difficult to abolish them. Cupidity for a long time shelters itself under the mask of religion.

'Although these restrictions are not established as punishments, and although a general restriction has nothing offensive in it to the particular individual, a distinction results from it which is injurious to a whole class of persons, since it supposes them to be dangerous and ill-intentioned. It is a singling out, which subjects them to public prejudice; and the legislator who enacts these incapacities, though frequently he merely acquiesces in spite of himself in a temporary hatred, fortifies it, and renders it permanent. These are the remains of a malady which has been universal; and which, even after it has been healed, leaves deep scars behind.'

We were unwilling to withhold from our readers the views in which the attempt to deny to the Irish population their civil rights appears to the penetrating genius of Mr. Bentham; and they will see that this perverse conduct, which gives such lively concern to all liberal and enlightened men, and which may prove of incalculable detriment to the empire, is considered by him as having originated in fanaticism and as being kept up by avarice.

[*To be continued.*]

Art. XI. *The Situation of Great Britain in the Year* 1811. By M. de Montgaillard, Author of Remarks on the Restoration of the Kingdom of Italy by the Emperor Napoleon; of the Right of the Crown of France to the Roman Empire, &c. Translated from the French. 8vo. pp. 225. 9s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1812.

In many of our reviews of French publications, we have, of late years, had occasion to observe a display of wonderful satisfaction with the Imperial Ruler, and a happy rivalship in eulogizing his wisdom and grandeur. Scarcely any book has come into our hands without containing, in some part, its tribute of panegyric, however foreign the praise of military and political feats might be to the main object of the work.

Now, that which all these writers have been doing partially and incidentally has been made by M. de Montgaillard the direct and principal topic of his book. He is a kind of wholesale-dealer in eulogiums on Bonaparte, and in invectives on his enemies. All that proceeds from the Cabinet of the Thuilleries originates, according to him, in a most disinterested sollicitude for the happiness of mankind; while the British, the opposers of his beneficent sovereign, are found to have no other object than self-aggrandizement at the expence of ruin and desolation to all around them. M. de Montgaillard is not a novice in this loyal and dutiful species of composition; since the books announced in the title-page before us shew that he was equally clear in his conviction of Napoleon's right to the dominion of Rome and Italy. So zealous a writer and so warm an admirer ought not, in justice, to go unrewarded; and we accordingly expect to hear soon of the promotion of M. de Montgaillard from the station which, we understand, he at present holds in the War-office at Paris.

For the immediate cause of the present work, we are inclined to look in that derangement of our exchanges which has excited so much speaking and writing among ourselves. M. de M.'s arguments tend, as far as it is possible to assign a general character to a desultory mass, to impeach the validity of our money-system, the stability of our trade, the duration of our revenue, and, by consequence, the permanency of our naval superiority. Attributing the existence of our embarrassments to Bonaparte's hostile decrees, he exhorts the whole continent to persevere in the execution of them, and to renounce the use of our commodities, as long as we remain obstinately averse to peace, and persist in what he calls a 'war of extermination.' A wish for peace, from whatever quarter, is intitled to respectful attention; and had this author confined himself to a condemnation of the conduct of our ministers in particular points, such as the rupture of Lord Lauderdale's negotiation in 1806, and the still more abrupt refusal of the Austrian mediation in 1807; or, had he pointed his censure against the capture of Copenhagen and our Orders in Council; he might have told our countrymen much that has not yet reached their ears, and have flattered himself with making no inconsiderable number of converts to his pacific views. His tone, however, is much more calculated to offend than to persuade. He makes no appeal to our reason, but seeks to frighten us by necessity; he has no medium in argument, but all is abuse towards one side and praise towards the other; so that this publication, though executed by a man of talents, is so far from being calculated to soothe the violence of national ani-

mosity, that it may be considered as an instrument of addition
exasperation.

The first specimen which we shall give of M. de Montgaillard's composition is of rather a more philosophical cast tha the rest of his labours. It consists of a disquisition on the nature of commerce, and of an argument to prove that Britis commerce is not of a character to confer permanent prosperity on a state.

'Commerce does not constitute the *real* strength and prosperity o a state; it only developes and augments them. Commerce, indeed gives all the appearances of wealth; but it does not constitute th *real* riches of an empire. This power and wealth reside essentiall in the population and the fertility of the soil. We see, in fact, commerce removing incessantly both from regions and people: the sand and deserts of the East, formerly covered with palaces and temples now exhibit nothing but ruins; while the *Gauls* still display that fertility and wealth which, in ancient times, rendered their territory s important to the Roman power. In short, it is commerce which firs represented amongst the Phœnicians, Fortune, under the blind attribute of Inconstancy!

'Commerce is attended with results which are infinitely advantageous; but its spirit of enterprize is frequently injurious, becaus the love of gain tends to obliterate sentiments of liberality, and always ends by substituting self-interest in the place of honour; so that amongst people essentially or generally commercial, riches obtain too much consideration and influence, to the detriment of honour and good faith.'—'The Parents of Commerce are Industry and Labour: the offspring, in return, produces Riches, and consequently Luxury and Avarice; that is to say, the wants which Luxury requires, in order to be supported. From these causes originate Corruption, Fraud and War.'—

'The more a state whose prosperity is radically or *essentially* founded on commerce, extends its political influence, the less that state can promise itself the enjoyment of a long period of peace. The Venetians, the Portuguese, the Spaniards, the Dutch, the English, and in fact, all modern nations, which have successively pretended to a monopoly of commerce, have been exposed to continual wars, and have "*terrorised*" the globe by their cruelties and devastations. Economists, philanthrophists, and philosophers, have wished to give dignity to commerce, and to raise it, by their scientific eulogies, to a level with the *nobleness* of *military* distinctions! But the very nature and spirit of commerce, namely, experience, and the necessity of things, gives the lie to all their panegyrics. Voltaire has spoken of commerce like a poet; while Fenelon, Rousseau, and Raynal, have treated it like sophists and rhetoricians.'—

'It is not easy to misconceive the advantages, though they are often not to be estimated, which a state may derive from commerce; still less are we inclined to withhold a constant esteem for the pro-
of the real merchant. He deserves the respect and gratitude
low-citizens, as long as probity, industry, a love of peace,
obedience

obedience to the laws of his country, and fidelity to his sovereign, govern his operations and regulate his intercourse.'—'Hence, by showing the fatal effects which are caused by commerce, we speak, in the present article, only of the commercial spirit which applies to a nation or government.'—

'The commerce which is really useful to a state, the commerce which never ends, but always procures new riches for a nation, is that which consists in the exchange of the superfluities of its own soil and industry, for objects of necessity or luxury of which that nation is destitute; or else for gold and silver, which in all times and places represent those objects. Thus a state which has a great excess or superflux of raw or wrought materials, the produce of its own soil, may carry on an active and very advantageous commerce. This is the present, and will be the eternal situation of the French Empire. A nation whose exchanges bear in a great degree upon foreign commodities, which are beyond its reach, cannot, on the contrary, have any other than a precarious commerce, subordinate to political circumstances; and subject, in consequence, to a ruin which must happen at a longer or shorter period of time, but in a manner that is inevitable. Such is the situation of Great Britain.'

The object of this passage appears to be two-fold; first, to undervalue foreign commerce generally, and, in the next place, to depreciate that particular description of it which the author asserts is followed in this country. On the former argument we shall make no comment, because we have long been of opinion that the advantages of foreign commerce are over-rated both by our countrymen and by our government. The second point, however, we mean the notion that our foreign commerce is more precarious than that of France, and consists chiefly of the export of the commodities of other countries, is an error of too serious a character to be overlooked. In our official statements of exports, it is common to distinguish the foreign goods from the British; and whoever will inspect the returns, for example, from 1799 to 1806, will find that the value (real, not official) of the former was under eleven millions sterling a-year, while that of the British goods exceeded forty millions annually. Not only is the amount of foreign merchandise much less, but the ratio of profit is also smaller, the carrying trade being in fact the least profitable of any; though to those who, like M. de Montgaillard, are fond of judging from appearances, it seems the most lucrative. The distinction drawn in the last paragraph of the extract, between the foreign commerce of France and that of England, has therefore very little foundation; since three-fourths of the exports of England consist in the produce of its soil and industry, or, which is the same thing, of the soil and industry of its colonies. One-fourth only of our foreign trade can be said to be carried on in com-goods infinitely greater than is required for the consumption of the United Kingdom: it follows, from absolute necessity, that three-fourths of this quantity of merchandise must be poured upon the Continent of Europe: *there only are the markets*, in which Great Britain can sell her commercial products.'—

'At present, whole bodies of mechanics are seen, unable to procure employment, in most parts of the United Kingdom; the manufactories have been compelled to stop, and trade has experienced such distress, such protracted distress, that the State has been obliged to come forward and assist the merchants and manufacturers of the kingdom. Parliament has granted them a loan of six millions sterling, that they may be enabled to fulfil at least a part of their engagements! This assistance may, indeed, palliate the evil for a short time; but it is very far from curing it. It is not the amount of six millions more, added to the circulation, which will re-establish the commercial credit of Britain. Not fifty, or even an hundred millions sterling would produce that effect, provided it were possible for the Government to advance such a sum without giving the death-blow to public credit. It is the markets of the Continent which are necessary to England, in order to preserve motion and life within that country! *Nothing but the re-opening of the old markets of Europe can save Great Britain from the alarming crisis to which she is at present brought; and it is in this light that we may justly say, that the fate of Great Britain is at the disposal of the Emperor Napoleon.*'

The most extraordinary circumstance, in this accumulation of bold assertions and hasty repetitions, is that it should never occur to the author to entertain doubts of the solidity of his reasoning. He had set out by laying it down as a principle, (p. 7.) that 'power and wealth reside essentially in population and fertility of soil,' in neither of which he knew us to be deficient; and he proceeds, notwithstanding, on the assumption that, in our case, the origin of this 'power and wealth' is in foreign commerce. He piques himself on arguing from British authorities; and he has arrived, we perceive, at the knowlege (p. 39.) that the amount of income subject to the ten per cent. tax is about one hundred and fifty millions. Now, had he taken the average of our trade with the continent of Europe for a number of years back, and calculated a fair mercantile profit on both imports and exports, he would have found that the share of national income, arising from a quarter in his eyes of such mighty consequence, bore a very small proportion to the whole; a proportion scarcely exceeding three millions a-year, or about a forty-fifth part of the total amount;—and if we go a step farther, and calculate the home-capital employed by our foreign trade at twice the collective amount of our annual imports and exports, we arrive at the conclusion that nine or ten millions, say one-fifteenth of our national income, will form the profit arising directly and indirectly from our commerce with the continent of Europe. Such is the proportion of trad on which it is in the power of the master of the Continent t inflict a wound; a proportion by no means insignificant whe we consider how dependent the various branches of nationa commerce are on each other, but which at the same time i greatly below the estimate assigned by current opinion eve among ourselves. If to this we add the consideration that th utmost exercise of Bonaparte's power has been able to tak away a part only of this fifteenth, we may safely infer that ou mercantile suffering would have been much smaller, had w fostered, with an impartial hand, the other branches of ou commerce; above all, our trade with the United States and with the West Indies, the amount of which is nearly equal t that which we carry on with the whole of the European continent. From these various circumstances, it is apparent how much larger a share of the national income proceeds from inland than from foreign trade; a truth which cannot be too strongly enforced, since many among us, and even some persons high in office, are disposed gravely to adhere to the old doctrine that inland trade is unproductive, and consists of a mere transfer from hand to hand.

If the maintenance of our continental commerce be, according to M. de Montgaillard, so essential to our national existence, the decrees of which the object was to extinguish it must be intitled to his highest praise. Accordingly, they are always extolled as *chefs-d'œuvre* of policy,

> ' The imminent dangers which at present surround Great Britain, proceeding principally and absolutely from the just and rigorous shackles imposed on her trade by the Berlin Decree — such an alarming situation for the people of the United Kingdom, must grow worse in proportion to the length of time which the British commerce is interdicted on the Continent of Europe.
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> ' Assuredly it is impossible to misconceive here the striking and happy effects *already* produced by the Berlin and Milan Decrees! These measures may, indeed, occasion some privations; they may cause some private losses, or momentary embarrassments in the commercial proceedings of Continental States; but they strike directly at the commerce of England. By this alone they must soon produce favourable results to the merchants and manufacturers of the French Empire, and of all the States of Europe. The French Empire being deprived, for a moment, of the power of fighting Great Britain upon the ocean, had no choice of means for attacking this nation, the primary cause of all the plagues and wars which have for twenty years afflicted Europe. The French Empire has *declared war against the Commerce* of Great Britain, and this policy proves the profound views and political wisdom of the Court of the Thuilleries.'—

'The Decrees of Berlin and Milan are essentially the protectors of the maritime rights of nations; the arrangements made by those Decrees ought to be the law, the public law of nations, as long as England shall refuse to acknowledge the independence and sovereignty of flags.'

It appears, indeed, to be one of the principal objects of this book to promulgate the praise of these Decrees, whether with the view of reconciling the persons at present labouring under them to a continuance of privations, or to render more acceptable their introduction into quarters in which they have not yet been adopted.

'The day on which the consumption of colonial goods shall be deemed unnecessary for the Continent, the fortune of Great Britain will experience a total revolution. It is, therefore, of importance to the peace, the ease, and the prosperity of Europe, that her various States should learn *to dispense with British merchandises;* that they should encourage the industry of their own subjects, and that national manufactures should every where make war against those of Great Britain.'— 'They would, by these means, free themselves from those odious tributes which are levied on them, by force of arms, through the avidity and exactions of the British Ministry. By depriving this Ministry of the gold which it has levied commercially in every Empire, of that gold with which it excites and pays for every war, the Sovereigns of Europe will ensure the tranquillity of their reigns and the peace of their territories.'

'The most noble tribute that a faithful subject can offer to his Sovereign in the present period, is to repel and abandon the consumption of British merchandises, and to set upon them the seal of infamy!' —'It is by fighting England with the arms which she has employed against us, that we shall obtain a general, a glorious, and a permanent peace. It is the two capitals of England, Manchester and Calcutta, that we must attack; and we can do this, by merely proscribing, under pain of ridicule and contempt, both the colonial produce and the manufactured goods of Great Britain. In short, it is time to re-conquer our commerce and industry, and to give to the august Chief of the Empire, the first of all means for giving a perpetual fecundity to regenerated France, and to ensure for ever the prosperity of our manufactures!'

One of the most singular errors in the present work, though an error which is very common among foreigners, is an exaggerated estimate of the advantages which we derive from the possession of India. That country has been so greatly celebrated, both in antient and modern ages, as the source of inexhaustible wealth, that it requires either an actual residence in it, or an attentive scrutiny at home into the reported gains of the public and of individuals, to exempt us from the influence of the general delusion. Such a scrutiny would satisfy us that the Company, as a body, has long been carrying on a losing trade; and that the proportion of successful individuals in India, deducting for deaths, disappointments from loss of health, and other causes, is not greater than a similar proportion out of a given number of persons settled at home. A foreigner, however, has no access to such direct and particular information; current rumour forms the basis of his conclusions; and the *ignotum omne pro magnifico* prevails with full force in regard to this region of jewels and pagodas. "It is not," say many persons, "with her possessions in Europe, but with those in the two Indies, that Britain supports the brunt of war. It is not London but Calcutta which is her real capital. It is the inexhaustible treasures of Bengal which enable that power to make efforts which astonish the universe."

'It is the produce,' says M. de Montgaillard, 'of the sales of muslins and sugars, which must supply the greater part of the public expenditures of Great Britain: it is the benefits of commerce which must counteract the National Debt, a debt which has increased so prodigiously within the last twenty years, that all the revenues of the British power in Bengal are not sufficient to pay *the interest of it* alone! This interest has risen to about twenty-two or twenty-three millions sterling, and the most partial of the English writers do not estimate at more than twenty millions sterling the whole of the revenues which Great Britain derives from Bengal. In fact the United Kingdom has its head and its arms in Europe, but its body is really in India: hence the allegory of the statue of gold on legs of clay is perfectly appropriate to the political situation of England.'—

'It is in America and India that the Cabinet of London has found the resources, by means of which it has enslaved Europe, and saturated it with blood!'—

'The conquest of the Peninsula of India, effected in fifteen years, has given to the British Government the commercial riches of the East: this conquest has permitted the said Government to increase in the space of ten years, its financial resources, in the simple nature of taxes or duties, by the sum of fourteen millions sterling per annum; but the greatest part of the commercial goods or manufactured merchandises of Bengal and the rest of India, will no longer find either ports or purchasers in Europe.'

To those who know that the Company have never been able to make good the payment of their promised half million annually to government, it must be amusing to hear M. de Montgaillard speak with such confidence of an annual contribution of twenty millions. To judge from the nature of the official communications to parliament, the affairs of India are likely, during this session, to undergo an investigation; a discussion that will shew to this declamatory Frenchman as well as to ourselves that, in respect to public revenue, India is not an assistance but an expence to us. The Company's dividends have of late years been paid, in a great measure, by aid from parliament; and their debt, it is apprehended, must eventually become an addition to the burdens of this country, accompanied, however, by a transfer of their territorial revenue. The amount of taxes levied on our importation of Eastern commodities, though below M. de Montgaillard's sanguine statement, is undoubtedly very large: but it consists of consumption-duties, and is paid out of our own pockets. The possession of territory abroad is by no means the productive cause of this revenue; our treasury might receive the same amount of taxes were the goods imported from an independent country, as China for example, whose produce bears, in fact, a large proportion of the revenue for which credit is given, in common opinion, to the resources of the Company. The way to estimate the advantage of India to this country is neither by its direct contributions, nor by the magnitude of our consumption-duties on its produce, but by ascertaining the profit on the capital invested in the trade, and the extent of property realised by our countrymen who have gone abroad. Both have been considerable: but we repeat that it is by no means clear that they have exceeded the amount which would have been acquired by the same capital and the same labour employed at home. Those who find themselves ill prepared to assent to this doctrine would do well to read, with attention, Dr. Smith's disquisition on the expediency of colonial trade: or, if they object to theoretical authority, let them repair to the city, and ascertain on 'Change whether most money is made by home or by foreign commerce; and whether the experienced merchant does not prefer the business of small profit and quick return, to the long credits and large commissions which captivate the imagination of the young beginner.

A different topic from the above-mentioned, and one on which M. de Montgaillard is much more at home, is the customary tribute of adulation to Bonaparte. We have seldom seenful some flattery carried to a greater length,—amid protestations, too, of strict impartiality:

> 'It is necessary to explain the naval power and the commercial riches of England, and to explode in the face of all Europe, this phantom of prosperity which has deluded every government, which oppresses every people, and which might have enchained the universe by the most scandalous and rigid laws, if, amidst all the prodigies and every kind of glory which can do honour to human nature, Providence, in its eternal justice, had not indicated to all nations the avenger of their rights, and the protector of their liberties — such,

in short, might have been the result, if Providence had not grante to the French Empire a statesman profound in his councils, a warrio invincible in the field, the wisest administrator, and the greatest as h is the best of monarchs. *Far be from us every idea of flattery*, ever- sentiment of animosity or hatred.'—

'Mr. Perceval believes, like his predecessor, that he has to de with an ordinary *French King;* he does not see that Napoleon [illegible] not French King, but the Emperor and the Child of Victory.'— 'The political system of the Thuilleries is as fixed and immutabl as the power and glory of its Sovereign!'

'During the last ten years, the whole political face of Europe h changed; a Great Man has seated himself upon the throne o France; he wills the grandeur of his Empire; his resolutions ar those of wisdom and of genius, and his power is as comprehensive a his mind!

'Maria Louisa has given birth to that race of heroes on who will for ever repose the destiny of France, the fate of the world All the prayers, all the hopes of the innumerable subjects of th Emperor of the French are fulfilled; the happiness and the glory o the Empire are secured, and the Imperial Dynasty becomes eternal! like the glory of its founder!'— 'Such happiness is worthy of th hero and politician who saved France, when about to be devoured by factions and invasion—the warrior, whose every step has been marked by prodigies and triumphs,—the administrator whose whole thoughts are employed for the benefit of his people! The love of all Frenchmen is the only recompence worthy of so great a soul.'

It was our wish and intention to lay the whole of our remarks on and extracts from this work before our readers at once: but we find them too extensive for the space which at this period of the month yet remains open in our pages, and we must therefore here suspend this article and resume it in our next number.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. XII. *Remarks relative to the Danger attendant on Convoys;* together with a Proposition for the better Protection of Commerce from Sea-risk and Capture; earnestly recommended to the Attention of all Merchants and Ship-owners throughout Great Britain. By Richard Hall Gower, Author of a Work on Seamanship, and of an Account of the four-masted Vessel, Transit. 8vo. 1s. Mawman.

THIRTEEN years have now passed since the acquisition of a decided naval superiority over our enemies enabled government to keep a sufficient number of men of war in readiness for the protection of our trade, and led, in consequence, to the adoption of the Convoy-Act. The provisions of that act were two-fold; first, an obligation on all unarmed vessels to put themselves under convoy; and, in the next place, the imposition of a duty on merchandise in return for the protection which was thus afforded. The convoy-system has continued in force ever since, and in the present state of our ship-building has probably tended to lessen considerably the harvest which the enemy's privateers have long been accustomed to reap from our commerce. It is, however, subject to considerable objections. The vessels, as remarked by Mr. Gower, are a long while collecting before they sail from port, and, when under sail, are obliged to proceed much more slowly than if alone; the worst sailer in the fleet keeping back all the other ships, and restricting their rate of progress to her own. Examples have also occurred in which the assemblage of vessels in convoy has been the cause of extensive shipwrecks; as in the case of the homeward-bound Jamaica fleet in 1801, off Inagua, and of the outward-bound West India fleet in 1804, off the coast of Portugal; in both of which instances, the miscalculation on board the men-of-war proved fatal to the ships which were following: but a more frequent source of danger arises from the damage which ships, crowded together, are always liable in bad weather to cause to each other.

Since the repeated defeats of the enemy at sea have extinguished the hope of coping with our men-of-war, their exertions have been chiefly directed to the equipment of a host of privateers. Hence the expediency of reducing on our part the number of our ships of the line, and of multiplying our cruizers. The saving of the cost of one line-of-battle-ship will supply a fund for the outfit of eight or ten small vessels. Another reform, still more urgently required, is the abrogation of our shamefully tedious and expensive law-processes, the vexation of which materially lessens the activity of our smaller ships of war. A farther advantage of an increase of small vessels would consist, as Mr. Gower justly remarks, in affording a nursery for active seamen. After having augmented the number of our cruizers, Mr. G. proposes to establish a chain of them along the channel, with instructions to communicate with each other as well as with the signal-posts along the shore; and he recommends an increased frequency in their communications with the signal-posts, together with orders to ply between the posts, instead of keeping immediately off them. Merchant-vessels chased by the enemy would thus be at no loss to know in what direction they ought to fly for protection; for it is not likely that French privateers would venture into the channel when the weather was so bad as to drive our cruizers from their stations, except with a particular wind.

With regard to the construction of our cruizers, Mr. Gower remarks that we have hitherto been so far behind the French as to make ourselves objects of ridicule to them. He condemns our system of *over-masting*, and urges that our attention should be given to make our ships good sailers, not *before a wind but upon a wind.* The injury to the health of our men, from exposure to wet on board our small cruizers, is also a just subject of reproach to those who are charged with their construction.—The inattention to fast-sailing in the building of our merchant-men, which has prevailed since the convoy-act was passed, will make it necessary to continue during the present war the system of convoys, but they ought to be small and frequent. In the course of years, Mr. Gower thinks, merchant-men may be so constructed as to sail as rapidly as privateers, and to be consequently independent of convoy: but this we can by no means consider as likely to become a general case, since extent of stowage-room is a primary consideration in regard to a merchant-man; and we have yet to learn that this can be attained without interfering with quickness of sailing. As far as our researches on this subject have hitherto proceeded, we should be inclined to pronounce extent of stowage a superior object in the case of the majority of our merchant-men; and a partial delay from convoys to be a smaller evil, in the great branches of our trade, than the sacrifice of capaciousness for the reception of merchandise. By the great branches of our trade, we mean such as our commerce with the East and West Indies and the Baltic. We see no reason against having a monthly convoy to the West Indies from the Downs, during the whole season from September to March; nor why the order to sail should not be positive as soon as a dozen of ships are collected. It is only by such energy as this on the part of the Admiralty, that an end can be put to the perpetual delays of the merchants and ship-brokers. In the smaller branches of our trade, where frequent convoys cannot be provided, it would evidently be preferable to adopt Mr. Gower's plan of running-ships, and to seek their protections not by such expensive methods as loading them with ordnance or crowding them with seamen, but by making fast sailing a primary object in their construction.—This is a well-meant pamphlet; and, with the exception of a recommendation of bounties, (p. 14.) we are disposed to regard its contents as intitled to a considerable share of public attention.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JANUARY, 1812.

BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 13. *Histoire des Femmes Françaises les plus célèbres, &c.* i. e. An Account of the most celebrated French Women, and of their Influence over the French Literature as Patronesses and as Authors. By Madame de Genlis. 2 Vols. 12mo. Paris, and reprinted in London for Colburn. 1811.

Madame de Genlis possesses the talent of giving interest to every character whose history she narrates; and this power enables her to celebrate some of her country-women whose biography, in other hands, would have proved as insipid as are their writings. She has enlivened the present work by introducing her own remarks on literary subjects; and among these we admired the eulogium on Madame de Sévigné, which is penned with equal truth and elegance. We also subscribe to her severely virtuous censure of Madame Cotin's "*Claire d'Albe*," since the extracts which are made from that novel afford sufficiently *damning proofs* of its indelicacy and immorality. The biographical account of Madame Cotin is, however, ludicrously defective; no other information being given than that she wrote her first work at Paris in the time of Robespierre, and this assertion is contradicted in a note by the London editor. Madame de Genlis's constant abuse of D'Alembert is rather wearisome than convincing; and she praises so highly the moderation of La Motte in his contests with Madame Dacier, that her own acrimony becomes the less excusable. Her defence of Louis XIVth's resentment against Fenelon is too courtier-like, and seems to be introduced chiefly in order that her own book may be lengthened by extracts from Telemachus. For this purpose, the "*Mélanges*" of Madame Necker, and the former works of Madame de Genlis herself, have also been pillaged. Without, however, investigating all this lady's literary opinions or manœuvres, we can pronounce many parts of this publication to be so amusing and ingenious, that our readers will be amply repaid by them for the trouble of turning over the whole.

The retrospect of this history begins so early as with Radegonde, wife of Clothaire I. and is brought up to our own times.

EDUCATION, &c.

Art. 14. *A Vocabulary in the English, Latin, German, French, Spanish and Portuguese Languages.* By J. Boardman. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Boosey.

This work is intended for those learners of languages, who, being suddenly called abroad, require a ready provision of current words. It is easy to learn and to remember the name of an object in similar languages, but difficult to remember it in those which have no resemblance; and therefore, in order to teach an Englishman the *southern* languages, the *Latin* nomenclature of his own tongue should be made the basis, but, in order to teach him the *northern* languages, the *Saxon* nomenclature of his own should be the basis. Let us take the word *ingratitude* as a theme. Lat. *Ingratitudo.* Fr. *Ingratitude.* Ital. *Ingratitudine.* Span. *Ingratitud.* Portug. *Ingratidão.* When we read over this list, all the words are easily retained.—Now, in order to teach German, it is proper to employ the synonym *unthankfulness* as the theme. Germ. *Undankbarkeit.* Holland. *Ondankbaarheit.* Dan. *Utaknemmelighed.* If we read over this enumeration, also, the words are easily retained.—The parallel terms become imprinted on the memory by means of their analogy.

Mr. Boardman, however, rashly combines in one vocabulary both northern and southern words. His German column should have been omitted; it is incorrectly printed; and it is so ludicrously careless, that the word *nipple*, for instance, is translated by the German word *wartze*, a wart, as if on purpose to render ridiculous the stammering gallantry of our young officers.—For learners of the southern languages, the work is better adapted. It resembles the Amara-singha of the Hindoos; the words being arranged not in alphabetic but in systematic order. First occur the days, weeks, months, seasons, cardinal points, and other ideas of time. — Secondly come quadrupeds and birds. We know not why fish, insects, fruits, are not comprehended in the same subdivision. — Thirdly, colours, dress, dignities temporal and spiritual. — Fourthly, buildings, rural objects, diseases, accidents. — Fifthly, divinity: under which head the mixture of words is very whimsical, and bears marks of an attempt at wit. Thus the words *altar* and *angel* are contiguous, as associated in the bridegroom's mind: so are the words *bible* and *devil*, *divinity* and *font*, *hell* and *holiday*, *nature* and *organ*. — A sixth subdivision contains the nomenclature of vegetables; a seventh, those of household furniture; an eighth, those of the human body; a ninth, those of degrees of affinity. —Music, Meats, Minerals, have their appropriate chapters; and the book concludes with Numerals.

The words are arranged in seven parallel columns: first in English, next in German, then in Latin, French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese. The preface displays a very inconsiderable knowlege of comparative grammar.

Art. 15. *A Guide to Happiness*, or the Doctrines, Precepts, and Promises of Christianity displayed and enforced. Originally intended for the Instruction of a young Lady. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Sold by Mrs. Cook, bookseller, Jermyn-street.

This catechism, compiled for the purpose of initiating young persons in religious and practical knowlege, is divided into eight sections, with the following titles: Of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost.—Of the Fall of Man.—Of our relative Duties, and first of our duty to God.—Duty to our Neighbour.—Duty to ourselves.—Of the Divine Attributes.—Concerning the Religion of the Jews.—The Superiority of the Christian Religion. The compiler of such a work ought to possess very extensive and accurate learning; how far these qualities belong to the present catechist may be inferred from the information given to the pupil, p. 73., that the Church of England is called *episcopal*, 'from Episcopius, a celebrated divine.'

Art.

POETRY.

Art. 16. *Cottage Poems*, by the Rev. Patrick Brontë, B. A. Minister of Hartshead-cum-Clifton, near Leeds, Yorkshire. Crown 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards Crosby and Co. 1811.

The title of these poems seems to require some explanation; and we are told that they are called Cottage Poems 'because they are chiefly designed for the lower classes of society.' To adapt his verse to the inhabitants of the cottage, (we wish that this class was more numerous than it is,) the author 'has aimed at simplicity, plainness, and perspicuity, both in manner and style.' He farther adds that 'he has written not only for the good of the pious, but for the good of those who are not so; and that he hopes his poems will be rendered useful to some poor soul, who cared little about critical niceties.' Thus prepared by the advertisement, we expected not from Mr. Brontë any high poetic flights. His muse shall speak for herself:

'Her aims are good, howe'er they end——
Here, comes a foe, and there, a friend,
These point the dart, and those defend,
Whilst, some deride her;
But God, will sweetest comforts blend,
Whate'er betide her.

'Thus, heaven-supported, forth she goes,
Midst flatterers, critics, friends, and foes;
Secure, since He who all things knows,
Approves her aim,
And kindly fans, or fostering blows
Her sinking flame.

'Hence, when she shews her honest face,
And tells her tale, with aukward grace,
Importunate to gain a place
Amongst your friends;
To ruthless critics leave her case,
And hail her ends.'

From a poem intitled the 'Happy Cottagers,' we extract these stanzas:

'The table-cloth, though coarse,
Was of a snowy white,
The vessels, spoons, and knives,
Were clean, and dazzling bright;
So down we sat,
Devoid of care,
Nor envied kings,
Their dainty fare.

'When nature was refreshed,
And we familiar grown;
The good old man exclaimed,
"Around Jehovah's throne,
Come, let us all,
Our voices raise,
And sing our Great
Redeemer's praise!"

'Their artless notes were sweet,
Grace ran through every line;
Their breasts with rapture swell'd,
Their looks were all divine:
Delight, o'er all
My senses stole,
And heaven's pure joy,
O'erwhelm'd my soul.'

Seventeen pages are filled with lines of this description. Is it from too little grace, or from a too refined taste, that we cannot applaud such kind of verse?

The volume concludes with the 'Cottager's Hymn,' the first stanza of which is as follows:

'My food is but spare,
And humble my cot,
Yet, Jesus dwells there,
And blesses my lot:
Though thinly I'm clad,
And tempests oft roll,
He's raiment and bread,
And drink to my soul.'

Mr. Brontë courts not the favour of critics; and so far he is right, because critics and he cannot be on good terms.

Art. 17. *The Minstrels of Winandermere*, a Poem. By Charles Farish, B. D., Fellow of Queen's College, Cambridge, and late Lecturer of St. Cuthbert's, Carlisle. Crown 8vo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1811.

These poems are preceded by a long rambling dedication to Richard Clarke, Esq., the Chamberlain of London, in which Mr. Farish not only leads his friend over the neighbourhood and antiquities of Chertsey, (Mr. Clarke's residence,) but makes him follow 'from room to room at Cambridge,' to witness the '*resiliency*' with which a proposal for tolerating marriage in the Universities was received.

'The Minstrels of Winandermere' are supposed to be a set of school-boys; and the supposition may be admitted without difficulty. These young gentlemen recite various poems on the traditions and scenery of Cumberland: but the lines are so crouded with hard names and local allusions, that it is impossible for persons who have not visited the Lakes to understand them. The following stanza, on the effect of rocky fragments falling into the water, is thoroughly original:

'While the moon resting on the Scaw
Far o'er Wast-water laid her beam,
Which at the plunge trembled; loud kaw
Th' awaken'd birds with fearful scream.'

A part of the picture of Furness Abbey is in the same taste:

'There Furness all dishevelled sits,
Beneath full many a *kawing* tree.'

The ensuing lines are, however, much better:

‘ The hands
Of time here shew capricious sway:
’Tis his triumphal arch that stands,
In this light state of strange decay.’

The description of Edith’s singing (p. 79.) is well imagined; and the poem itself is a sort of versified Itinerary, which may prove an amusing and useful companion on a northern tour.

BULLION-QUESTION.

Art. 18. *Speech of the Right Honourable Lord King*, in the House of Lords, 2d July 1811, on the second reading of Earl Stanhope’s Bill respecting Guineas and Bank-notes. 8vo. pp. 48. 2s. 6d. Ridgway.

Lord King may be considered, in some measure, as a veteran among the writers and speakers on the subject of bullion. He begins by dividing his speech into two parts, the first of which is a vindication of his individual conduct; the second, a general disquisition on the state of our currency. In justification of his notice of last summer to his tenants, to pay their rent in specie, or in notes at a discount, he argues (p. 5.) that the depreciation of bank-paper has been progressive and alarming during the last twelve years; and that the vote of the House of Commons on the Report of the Bullion-Committee amounts to a declaration, on the part of government, that the restriction is to continue during the whole of the war. In giving us a copy (p. 7.) of his well-known letter to his tenants, his Lordship mentions that it was addressed to those only whose leases were of several years standing; and that his rule of conduct was to require payment in a currency which possesses an equal value now with that which it bore at the date of the lease. Calculating the quantity of gold which the amount of rent would have purchased at the time of the conclusion of the agreement, he now calls on his tenants to pay him this sum, either in specie or in notes sufficient for the purchase of specie. ‘ Where,’ he asks, ‘ is the hardship of this demand? The price of corn, the price of labour, the prices of every great staple commodity, are all augmented by the state of the currency. The covenants of a lease secure the payment of rent in the lawful money of Great Britain, and on every principle of law and equity, the landlord is intitled to receive the intrinsic value of the stipulated sum.’ The gross produce of a farm is generally supposed to be divided into four shares, three of which go to expences, taxes, and farmer’s profit, while the remaining fourth forms the rent. The mode of fixing a rent is to estimate the fourth of the produce at the average price of several preceding years; of course, if the farmer’s receipts are augmented by the fall of money, the amount of his rent should receive a correspondent augmentation. Now the average price of wheat, which for a period of thirteen years preceding 1785 was forty-six shillings a quarter, and for a similar period prior to 1797, fifty-two shillings, rose, in the third period ending in 1810, to more than seventy-one shillings. An advance of rent regularly takes place at the end of a lease; and his Lordship sees no reason why it should not be enforced during its continuance.

Having thus justified himself personally, the noble speaker pr ceeds to discuss the question on national grounds. Of the nin millions which now form the sum of our vast annual expenditure, h computes that ten millions are required in consequence of the state o our currency. Our supplies for the army, the navy, the ordnance, in short our expences at home, with the exception of the interest due to the public creditors and a part of the pay of the public servants, are augmented in the ratio of the fall of money. In Portugal and Sicily, the loss incurred by the fall of the exchange is not less than twenty per cent. on the amount of our remittance.—Adverting next to the consequences of the invasion of Spain by Bonaparte, his Lordship remarks that the bullion, which formerly flowed into Europe through the medium of Spain and Portugal, now finds its way through this country. Gold accordingly is cheaper among us notwithstanding all that has been said to the contrary, than it is i France and other parts of the continent to which it is afterward ported. If we look back to the history of the French Revoluti we find, says his Lordship, a lasting admonition against making pa a legal tender; the effect of which has been to cause a discontinua of leases in many parts of France, and, when granted, they generally made payable in corn. In this country, have already peared symptoms of a reluctance to renew leases for a length term; a reluctance from which, if it continues, the worst consequen to our agriculture may be apprehended. His Lordship adds, with ference to his individual conduct, a notice (p. 34.) of no small portance; namely, that he is willing to *pay* as well as *receive* on plan of an indemnifying allowance for the fall of paper-money. facilitate calculations of this kind, he has subjoined tables of the grad decrease in the value of notes, and the intrinsic value of money-contr at different stages in the history of depreciation.

In this, as in former publications, Lord King discovers a thorou acquaintance with the subject. Those who study his earlier prod- tions will find in them the materials of several of the arguments de loped in the Report of the Bullion-Committee; and we are induc by a perusal of the present speech to recommend to less accur writers an imitation of his Lordship in one respect, we mean in care with which he never fails to distinguish between the fall of pa from non-convertibility and from a cause of a different nature; tak steadily as his rule for computing the former, the rise in the mark price of gold-bullion above its coinage-price.

Art. 19. *An Appeal to Common Sense*, on the Bullion-questi
By a Merchant. 8vo. pp. 69. 2s. Richardson. 1812.

In common with the majority of his brethren in trade, this m chant is a declared enemy to the doctrines conveyed through t medium of the Bullion-Report; and, like a true practical man, suspects that the possession of general knowlege constitutes rather disqualification than an advantage, in such an inquiry as that whi engaged the attention of the Committee. This, we confess, is a ne idea to us.—Other parts of his charge against the Committee, su as their acting under preconceived impressions, and their bias in gard to the interpretation of the evidence, have been repeated

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urged in former publications. — After several preliminary animadversions, the author fairly enters the lists with Mr. Huskisson, and maintains, (p. 10.) in contradiction to that genleman, that the disappearance of our gold has been caused by the balance of international payments being against us. He even goes so far (but in this we can by no means agree with him) as to assert (p. 14.) that the circumstance of our currency being in paper, and non-convertible paper too, has no effect on the state of the exchange. More accurate views are expressed in a subsequent passage; in which the author declares, in contradiction to Mr. Huskisson, that bullion, or, to speak generally, the precious metals, must form the ultimate means of liquidating balances between different countries. He is a warm admirer of the work of Mr. Hill; (reviewed by us in Vol. lxiv. p. 278.) and he cannot help expressing great regret that a senator of the talents and integrity of Mr. Wilberforce should take an active part in supporting the new doctrine of Messrs. Horner and Huskisson. 'Either,' says he, 'Mr. Wilberforce had never thoroughly investigated the question, or he must have been influenced by undue predilection, through the well turned and high-sounding sentiments so diligently sent abroad by Mr. Huskisson.'

Following other writers on the ministerial side of the question, this author insists (p. 46.) on reckoning the present market-price of bullion as a proof not of the fall of paper, but of the rise of gold; and he even allows himself to contemplate a continuance of a similar enhancement of gold with reference to silver. One of the accusations most frequently urged by him against Mr. Huskisson is that gentleman's considering gold in the same light, whether in the shape of coin or in that of bullion. Another and a more serious one is the use (p. 59.) which the enemy may make, (or, if this author be correct, already has made,) of the publication of Mr. Huskisson, in disseminating far and wide a knowlege of its contents. After some keen animadversions on that head, this 'Merchant' brings to a conclusion his own pamphlet; which is one of the most verbose that has of late fallen into our hands, and may be said, like the Brehon law of the Irish, to contain "a proportion of good with a much larger one of bad."

Art. 20. *Reflections on the possible Existence and supposed Expedience of National Bankruptcy.* By Peter Richard Hoare, Esq. 8vo. pp. 76. 4s. Cadell and Davies. 1811.

Mr. Hoare has been one of the most voluminous writers on the subject of bullion. We reviewed in July last an "Examination of Sir John Sinclair's Observations" which bore his name, and we now find that he was the author of an anonymous pamphlet intitled "A Letter containing Observations on some of the effects of our Paper-currency," which was noticed in our Number for December 1810. (p. 435.) The remarks which we applied to these his earlier productions will be found to hold in a great measure with regard to the present; which, like them, is a performance of a mixed character, dwelling frequently on false positions in a tone of too much confidence, and discovering at other times no inconsiderable share of information and ability. The principal reason for Mr. Hoare's coming a third time before the public was to corroborate his former argument, that it is from excess of currency that the high price of the necessaries of life has chiefly, if not altogether, proceeded. The amount of our currency, when it consists of paper, ought not, he says, (p. 6.) to exceed what would have been its amount if in coin, and never would have exceeded it had paper been always convertible into cash. Having laid down this fundamental proposition, in which we have no difficulty in agreeing with him, he goes into a variety of enumerations on the increase of town and country-bank notes, and arrives at a conclusion to which we can by no means give our concurrence, namely, that the amount of our circulating medium is now *twice as great* as before the Bank-suspension. It is no wonder if, with such impressions regarding the increase of notes, he is disposed to go no farther in quest of the causes of the rise of provisions. A state of war can, in his opinion, scarcely be called instrumental in producing this enhancement; in support of which he presents us (page 18.) with a table of the price of wheat in Windsor market, as given in the 14th Volume of Young's Annals of Agriculture. This table extends from the year 1700 to 1810, and is a very useful document: but the author forgets that it is only within these forty-years that we have been under the necessity of depending on foreign supplies of corn. It is since that period that the increase of our population has outstripped the increase of our produce, and made us sensible of a material difference between peace, which opens to us the agricultural stores of our neighbours, and war, which withholds them. Now Mr. Hoare is so intent on proving that our currency has increased without cause, that he doubts (page 22.) whether in late years any material addition to our population has taken place; a subject on which he would have written differently, had he ascertained before publication the particulars of the return lately submitted to Parliament. We hope, also, that he is mistaken in another point, though on this we speak with less confidence; we mean, in denying that any additional comfort in the condition of the lower orders has been produced. If, however, we hesitate to contradict him in this opinion, we need have no doubt in regard to another topic, his assertion (p. 26.) that the augmented issue of bank-paper has impeded the extended cultivation of arable land.—In the midst of these errors, we have oc ſionally the satisfaction of finding a well-founded if not a novel mark, such as (page 18.) that many of our manufactures have b cheapened by improvements of machinery more than they have b enhanced from other causes, and that the fall in our colonial prod has been owing to a too rigid enforcement of the monopoly-syste

In calculating the effect of our taxes on the price of commoditi Mr. Hoare persists, as in his former pamphlet, (M. R. Vol. lx p. 435.) in denying that they have any considerable influence. ‘ was long,’ he says, (p. 29.) ‘our policy to avoid whatever tax might affect the wages of labour:’ but he finds it necessary to a an essential qualification, and to express his fears ‘that we are gr dually deviating from this course.’ It is amusing to see with wh pertinacity he dwells on augmentation of paper-money as the so cause of the enhancement of commodities. Butcher's meat he di

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covers (p. 41.) to have risen in price exactly as bank-notes have risen in quantity; and malt, had it not been for the additional duty, would probably have been forced into the list of examples of this happy coincidence. After such a formidable array of facts and arguments, Mr. Hoare considers himself as intitled to credit for moderation in saying (p. 50.) that only two-fifths of our present currency need be withdrawn, in order to restore it to its due amount. In the same conciliatory spirit, he forbears to call (page 54.) for any *immediate* reduction of our bank-paper. It is the prohibition of farther increase, the diminution of the Bank-advances to government, and a gradual lessening of the amount in circulation, that form the sum of his demands. He departs, however, from this temperate language, in terming (p. 58.) the diminished value of our public dividends 'a manifest and decided bankruptcy of the state;' an expression which could not fail to remind us of the whimsical title prefixed to his pamphlet. He is hence led to the recommendation of a singular proposal,—the imposition of fresh taxes, to make good the injury accruing to the public creditor in consequence of the fall of money. 'So long,' he says, (page 61.) 'as there is taxable property in the nation, it is liable, in justice, to satisfy the claims of the public creditor. Look around, and see whether the country is so destitute of resources as to be incapable of supplying a fund for that purpose. Has the land ceased to yield its harvests, its accustomed rents, its tithes, and its profits. Be not alarmed, my countrymen,' he adds, 'for no vast or intolerable sacrifice is required; the deficiency to be raised by fresh taxes is 13,800,000l. *only*.' Moderate as this may appear to Mr. Hoare's imagination, we much suspect that all his oratory will be unavailing to persuade the land-holders, and others on whom the burden would fall, to see it in the same light. They will have difficulty in comprehending by what means the mode of reimbursement proposed (page 65.) is to bring back the value into their pockets.—Equally little success is likely to attend the author's suggestion of diverting the income of the sinking fund from its original purpose, and applying it to the indemnity of the public creditor.

We are now to take leave of Mr. Hoare for the third time, and with little desire, we confess, of meeting soon again. On looking back to our criticisms on his former pamphlets, we find that, although unapprized of the identity of the author, we gave him, in both cases, a caution to digest and compress his thoughts. We cannot, however, flatter ourselves with receiving much attention at his hands, since this his third performance yields not in verbosity and declamation to the former two. Of the quaintness of his style, the use of such a word as 'violatory' (page 4.) may serve for an example; of the prolixity of his mode of arguing, it would be endless to exhibit proofs.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

Art. 21. *A Letter to a General Officer, on the Recruiting Service; to which is added, another on the Establishment of Rifle Corps*

in the British Army. By Colonel F. P. Robinson, Insp
Field-officer of the London District. 4to. 2s. Egerton.

In the first of these letters, the Colonel begins with statin
importance of the recruiting service, and the inadequate att
which has been paid to it and to the encouragement of its staff.
considers the subject, with which he seems to be well acqua
under the following heads: The Recruiting Staff. Slop-Clo
Bringing-Money. Surgical Inspection. Standard and Age.
stitutes. General-service Recruiting. Boy ditto. Pauper-chi
Desertion.

With regard to the first, Col. R. would carry on recruitin
general service only by means of staff-Serjeants, and a few staff-Ca
at 12s. per diem, with the usual emoluments, instead of regim
recruiting, which he regards as not only unnecessary, but r
with destruction to all the non-commissioned officers and pri
who are employed in it.—As to the second, he tells us tha
regulation which has since been adopted by the Adjutant-ge
though by whose recommendation he knows not, was suggest
the following extract from a letter written by him in October 1
to a Noble Lord then in office.

'" At the time of Intermediate Approval, each Recruit sl
be provided with a Slop Dress, consisting of a plain close r
white jacket, Russia duck trowsers, cloth foraging cap, black st
one shirt, and a pair of shoes, which would not cost more tha
shillings beyond the present allowance for necessaries; as the colo
clothes ought to be sold on the spot, for the benefit of the Rec
Every article to be marked with the name of the District, as w
the Regiment, or General Service. This would not only b
excellent Drill Dress, but much more convenient than any
on board ship, and prove the greatest possible check to desertio

Respecting the third topic, or the Bringing-money, as
called, (that is, the money paid to persons who bring recru
Colonel R. sensibly observes that, though it has been augmented
beneficial effects which might otherwise arise from the augmenta
are totally destroyed by tedious and unnecessary delays in payin
He is of opinion that no recruit who is five feet three inches high o
to be rejected; nor any man who does not exceed forty years of
provided that he be healthy, and of a good personal appear
As to the fourth point, the Colonel highly disapproves the pr
mode of inspection, and the rejection of recruits by district-surge
who, he says, are so hampered by their instructions that they ca
freely exercise their own judgment in performing their duty, and g
numbers of actually serviceable men are in consequence entirely
to the army. On the fifth point, or the procuring of Substit
which the author calls a 'monstrous military abortion,' he rem
that desertion has been greatly encouraged by it: as a proo
which, he states it to be a well-known fact that, in the London dist
the same men have inlisted as substitutes upwards of twenty time
Sixthly, as to recruiting for general Service, Colonel R. says
this is the most useful of all, but that it is by no means carrie
the extent which it might and ought to reach.

In the body of this letter, Colonel R. introduces Substitutes as the fifth head, General-service Recruiting as the sixth, and the subject of Standard and Age as the seventh; though at the beginning he places them in this order inverted. With regard to the last, he asks this question: 'Why should not a man of the United Kingdom, of five-feet three, and forty years of age, make as good a soldier as a French conscript of that description?' He thinks that our population should not, as to these two particulars, undergo too much military sifting.

The eighth head refers to the recruiting of Boys, for which the writer is a strenuous advocate; — the ninth, to the receiving of Pauper-boys into the army, which also he highly approves; observing that the adoption of it would ease their parishes by lessening the poor-rates; — and the tenth, to Desertion, in respect to which he makes the few following sensible observations:

'Proclamations hold out a free pardon to all such deserters as shall surrender themselves, by such a period, to persons appointed to receive them. But they have been uniformly accompanied with instructions, that all such surrendered deserters were to be put in confinement and sent under escort to the army depôt, or regiment, and subsisted at 10d. *per diem.*

'Now, surely all idea of a *free* pardon is completely done away, if, after a man has made every reparation in his power to his country for his former ill-conduct, he is to be disgracefully escorted from the very place where he so joyfully came forward to express contrition for his fault, to be looked upon, through the course of a long march, exactly in the same light as if he had been *apprehended* as a deserter. This is repugnant to common sense and policy; I feel myself authorized to say, that the best effect would be produced in London, by giving surrendered deserters the satisfaction of knowing that their voluntary return to their duty would meet with the highest approbation and encouragement. Such men, it is not unreasonable to suppose, would become more trust-worthy than many who may not yet have deserted.

'Desertion is a crime by which the country suffers much more materially than is commonly known; it is not merely the loss of so many men, and the consequent heavy expence in any given period, but that it becomes more and more *a system*, encouraged by impunity; for although a deserter is severely punished when he is taken, how few *are* apprehended. Who will run the risk of apprehending men of such desperate characters, for the insignificant reward now established?

'In London, the number of deserters would form a small army; yet, whenever *one* is taken, it is owing to some accidental circumstance, and not to the vigilance of the military, the police being totally out of the question; as it cannot be supposed the under Constables would destroy the hopes of a better harvest, by apprehending a man as a deserter, who in all probability would in a short time commit some act of felony, from which much greater profit would arise.

'When

'When a deserter is apprehended by the military in London, it
at the risk of their lives; they must put him in a coach, and conse
to a deduction of three shillings out of the twenty allowed by the a
for swearing him in, which, added to coach-hire, generally reduc
the reward to ten or twelve; besides which, it rarely happens tha
Soldier escapes without having his clothes torn, and Serjeants f
quently have their swords broken.

'I understand the present reward of Twenty-Shillings for app
hending a deserter was established in King William's reign; if
there can be no doubt that it ought to be at least three times as mu
now, and clear of all deductions, which are at present, two shillin
to the clerk of the Police Office, where the deserter is sworn in; a
one to the Provost Marshal, on receiving the prisoner.

'You will probably ask what all this latter paragraph has to do wi
the Recruiting Service; in answer to which I beg to inform yo
that at least one-half of the recruits passed in the London district a
deserters, consequently, it becomes an interesting point to t
I. F. O. and he has a better right than any other individual, to off
his opinions and suggestions upon it. Desertion is no longer to
considered as an accidental crime, owing to intoxication, or
avoid punishment for some trifling breach of discipline; it is n
systematic fraud; it is done for the sake of the high bounties; a
instead of imputing it to caprice or dissipation, we must attribu
it solely to a greedy desire for money, to defray the expences of eve
vile gratification; introducing, thereby, vicious principles of the wo
and most incurable nature. Desertion, considered in itself, is
heinous crime, but its consequences aggravate it many degrees.'

Colonel R. concludes this letter with a few remarks on Bread-an
meat-money, which he would either abolish altogether as unnecessar
or make an allowance of money in lieu of it. This mode, he say
would both put a stop to the tricking and jobbing which at prese
subsist between recruiting-parties and innkeepers, and would si
plify the district-accounts, which are now unavoidably voluminous a
troublesome.

The author's second letter, which treats on Rifle-corps, is short; a
more than one-half of it is taken up with observations on our infant
in general, and in extolling the prowess and superiority of our troo
over those of the enemy, with a predilection for his own count
which, when not carried to excess, is natural and excusable. T
Colonel seems to think that light-infantry companies are not abs
lutely necessary for regiments, but that, if they should be deemed
there ought to be one on each flank of every regiment; and th
the grenadier companies should be formed into battalions by them
selves, with the title of *Royal British Grenadiers*. He advises th
instructing of all our infantry in light manœuvres, the increase
our effective riflemen to the number of ten thousand, (exclusive
accidental foreign auxiliaries,) and the teaching of the bayonet-e
ercise. No raw recruit, in his opinion, should be admitted into
rifle-corps; nor any soldier become a sharp-shooter till after he h
acquired a knowlege of every other part of his duty. In order t
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establish this system, he would allow ten men from each regiment of the line, who are stout, healthy, and active, not under five feet four in height, nor above thirty years of age, to volunteer annually into the rifle-corps, in addition to the number that might be obtained from the militia.

AGRICULTURE.

Art. 22. *On the Husbandry of three celebrated British Farmers, Messrs. Bakewell, Arbuthnot, and Ducket:* being a Lecture read to the Board of Agriculture, June 6, 1811. By the Secretary to the Board, 8vo. 3s. 6d. Nicol and Son.

This retrospect on the husbandry of England for the last forty years is calculated to answer a good purpose: it is designed to stimulate farmers of the present day to a less tardy adoption of improvements than that which was manifested by their predecessors; for Mr. Young is of opinion that, if practices really excellent had on their first discovery been generally followed, British agriculture would have arrived at its present state forty years ago, and the kingdom would have been a garden. High praise is in the first place bestowed on Mr. Bakewell of Dishley, in the county of Leicester, for his judicious experiments and important improvements in the breeding of cattle. "The principles he began upon were *fine forms, small bones, and a disposition to make readily fat.*" He found the various stocks throughout the island managed on no enlightened system; but, by his visits to various parts of the country, he occasioned an activity in the farming mind, which was unknown before; and the Secretary adds, 'It is, in my opinion, unquestionable, from a multitude of facts within my personal knowledge, that the admirable spirit of enquiry, comparison, and experiment, which has for the last fifteen or twenty years made such a progress, in every part of the Empire, was excited by this extraordinary character; and that there is not at present a breed of any sort of live stock in the island, that does not derive its improvement from the skill, knowledge, and the principles which we owe to him, and which would not in any probability have existed, if Bakewell had not laid the foundation.'

In the notice next taken of John Arbuthnot, Esq., of Mitcham, in Surrey, our attention is directed to his principles and practice in the cultivation of strong loams, or clay-soils. This gentleman's first rule was, 'lay your land dry before you attempt any thing else:'—a most excellent maxim. With respect to the mode of tillage, course of crops, the exclusion of fallows, and the management of manure, &c., Mr. Arbuthnot's practice offered an instructive example, while his skill in agricultural mechanics gave to the world many useful farming implements.

Two sand-farms, one at Petersham and the other at Esher, both in Surrey, were the theatres of Mr. Ducket's experiments. His management of a light soil was eminently judicious, and he made several discoveries of importance. The advantages of trench-ploughing, and of giving as little tillage as possible to sandy soils, were fully ascertained by this intelligent cultivator. 'He condemned (says Mr. Y.) the ideas which governed the Norfolk farmers, in leaving what they called their *pan* unbroken, at the depth only of four or five incl To plough deep, and deeply to deposit manure, were with him vailing maxims: but, as the object of the farmer on light soils sh be to give them tenacity, he avoided the too frequent use of plough, and has been known to have put in a crop of wheat clover lay without any ploughing. Mortified at finding that a l field, under several preparations, refused to give a wheat-crop, perceiving that the evil consisted in that species of looseness in soil which causes the plant to be what the farmers call *root-fallen,* sagacity led him merely to scarify the surface, to leave the c part of the soil undisturbed, and, after having carted to the fa yard the bulbs of the clover, to drill in his wheat. The suc was great.—Mr. D. was also an advocate for the use of long f dung; and though he practised the drill-husbandry, it was not the penurious view of saving seed.

The Secretary concludes his lecture on the merits of Bake Arbuthnot, and Ducket, with lamenting the perversity of I lish farmers, and with urging the necessity of bringing the agri tural world to the recognition of those great principles which the p tice of these individuals have indisputably established. The concis of this pamphlet will prevent it from frightening the farmer; wh he has any good sense, will perceive the importance of the hints w it contains, and, if he has any regard to his own interest, wil guided by them.

Art. 23. *An Enquiry into the Nature and Cause of the Resp,* or Disease which is so destructive among Sheep, especially La hogs, on being first put to Cole-keeping; with Proposals for lishing by Subscription a Recipe, containing Directions ef ually to prevent and cure the Resp, and to promote the incre Safety of Cole and Turnip-feeding Sheep throughout the Y 8vo. pp. 69. 2s. 6d. Jacob, Peterborough; Longman and London. 1811.

The writer of this Enquiry wishes to be considered as a philoso cal agriculturist, and it is due to him to own that he appears to l bestowed minute attention on the diseases of sheep: but his proposal subscription from 500 individuals, of a guinea each, for the disclosu his secret for the certain cure of the *resp,* a disorder arising from i gestion, is not altogether in the character of a philosopher. He ou rather to be called a super-quack; for his system rises several notes ab common quackery. If a person has discovered any nostrum or specific the cure of a disease, the usual mode is to advertise the same; and public, by the purchase of a bottle, box, or packet of it, can m trial of its effects: but this sheep-doctor only advertises that he a recipe which he will disclose when he has pocketed five hund guineas!! We have merely the writer's word for the efficacy of nostrum; he does not propose to send some bottles or packets ro to different graziers, who may put his specific to the test: but hits on a plan 'by which he hopes in some trifling degree to adva his fortune by the discovery,' before he gives farmers an opportu of knowing whether it be a discovery worth learning.—Scarcely l we read four pages of this tract, when we perceived the autho

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spleen against Mr. Lawrence, and the cause of his ill-will to that respectable writer soon developes itself. Mr. L., forsooth, has asserted "*that all infallible receipts are infallible nonsense*;" an assertion which no proposer of a specific can ever forgive. The resp-recipe monger tells us that 'in this sense there is no grammar:' but if he can make no other objection to it, Mr. L. needs not be dismayed.

While, however, we object to this writer's proposal, we do not call in question his knowlege. Many useful remarks are thrown out in this treatise, concerning the treatment of sheep, when turned into a field of cole and turnips; and probably his secret may have something valuable in it. Considering the Resp, or *Rasp*, (as it is generally pronounced) as the result of rapid repletion in cole-feeding, the bleeding which he recommends may be judicious; and as the digestion is affected, something to give tone to the stomach of the animal may be very proper. Let the value of the recipe, however, be tried before the inventor obtains his reward.

NOVELS.

Art. 24. *Eugénie et Mathilde; ou Mémoires de la Famille du Comte de Revel: par l'Auteur d'Adèle de Senanges.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Deconchy. 1811.

We opened with pleasure a new work from the same pen which produced "*Adèle de Senanges*," and we recognized in *Eugenie et Mathilde* much of the graceful *naïveté* for which the writings of Madame de Souza are already distinguished. The story is perhaps too melancholy to be popular; and with the exception of Eugenia, all the personages present a view of human imperfection which is so natural that the contemplation of it becomes painful: like those effigies in wax, which startle us by their resemblance to the individuals whom they are intended to represent. We disapprove the character of Ladislaus, because he resolves on every emergency to commit suicide, while the author attaches no blame to this determination; and the apostrophe to mothers is laboured and tedious: but the general style of the work is elegant and unaffected, the first volume is replete with touching and pleasing traits, and the whole tale is extremely interesting.

Art. 25. *Raphaël, ou La Vie paisible, &c.:* Raphael, or a peaceful Life. By Augustus La Fontaine. Translated from the German by M. Breton. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. sewed. Dulau.

Here is another novel translated from the German of the prolific La Fontaine*; and this author's facility of composition is such that it may be presumed, if he had two or three amanuenses, he would dictate two novels at the same time, with as little difficulty as Phillidor found in winning two games of chess, while he walked from table to table. — We allow that the works of La Fontaine are never without interest, but the present is less pleasing than those which we lately noticed. Its title also is not appropriate, since the principal characters seem to expect and to seek peace only in their graves; and the adventures which it relates are neither probable nor very impressive. The difference between the customs of one country and those of another may, perhaps, be made to account to us for a poor painter's inviting the Rector Schulten to spend the rest of his life with him, on the first day of their acquaintance; as also for the ready acceptance of this invitation, and the fluency with which the Rector talks Greek to ladies and valets de chambre: but the impulse of parental affection is the same in Germany as in England; and in neither country would a father, on first learning that his son nourishes a hopeless passion, amuse himself with 'taking his picture in the character of Antiochus, languishing for Stratonice.'

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* See accounts of *five* others, in our *Appendix*, published with this Number, pages 541—543.

The discoveries which precede the *denouement* are still more extraordinary than the passages to which we have alluded: — but the story of Grossmann's and Annette's early love is agreeably told, and Raphael himself is *naif* and engaging, although

"Too soon dejected and too soon elate,"

like most heroes of modern and particularly of German novels.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 26. *Devotional and Doctrinal Extracts*, from Epistles of the Yearly Meetings in London, of the People called Quakers, from the Year 1678 to 1810. 8vo. pp. 90. 2s. Cradock and Joy. 1811.

For many years, the amiable Society of *Friends* pursued the even tenor of their way, without being disturbed by those internal feuds and agitations which result from theological controversy; and we attributed their harmony, not to an abſolute uniformity of opinion, but to their having no rock of creeds on which they could possibly split. Though, however, they had no avowed formula of faith, their sentiments as a body were supposed to be made clear by their writings, published by authority, or with the sanction of their yearly meetings. The works of Penn, Fox, Pennington, &c. have been quoted by all writers: but the compiler before us thinks that the surest evidence of the doctrinal sentiments of the Friends is that which is found in their yearly epistles, which proceed from the body at large in their annnal convocation (if we may use this word) in London. Accordingly, extracts are here made from them, for the purpose of shewing that the society cannot be regarded as Trinitarians, since the language employed by the compilers of the yearly epistles 'asserts or implies *the Supremacy of the Father*, and the consequent subordination of the Son.' The compiler, however, with all his 'desire to preserve his brethren in the consistent profession of *the unity of God*, and that he alone is the proper object of prayer and supreme adoration,' has not found the yearly-meeting epistles uniformly constructed on those principles. A few instances occur in which Christ is joined *with God*, as an object of "worship:" but they are rare. Of the 132 epistles, not more than 20 ascribe "Blessing—Glory—Dominion—Honour—Worship—Praise or Power," to Jesus Christ: but it cannot be denied that, occasionally, in these epistles, Christ is associated with God the Father as an object of devotion. On the other hand, they prove that the *general* practice of the Friends has been to ascribe adoration and prayer to the Father, as the only proper object of religious worship.

This is the amount of the evidence: but we are at a loss to perceive what authority it can have in settling disputes.

Aware, indeed, of the invalidity of this testimony, the writer subjoins arguments to his extracts. After having noticed the epistles which favour the doctrine of the Deity of Christ, he adds, 'If Christ be really considered, as these *notions* represent, the proper object of prayer and supplication, the bestower of our natural talents, as well as the dispenser of all spiritual blessings, and lastly, "*omnipotent*," I am wholly at a loss to imagine what province in creation, and in the benevolent dispensations of nature and grace, the advocates of such doctrines would assign to *God the Father*, whom the Scriptures uniformly represent as the original Fountain and Author of all our blessings, temporal and eternal, as our Creator, constant preserver, and final judge, "by *that man* whom *he hath ordained*."'

This argument is addressed to the Society called Quakers, and we leave it to them to make a reply. We have done our duty by making a fair report.

Art. 27. *Two Sermons*, preached at the Visitation of the Rev. the Archdeacon of Leicester, in the Years 1805 and 1811. To which is added, a Sermon on the Salvation which is in Christ only. By the Rev. Edward Thomas Vaughan, M. A. Vicar of St. Martin's and All Saints, Leicester, &c. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Hatchard.

Of these three sermons, the first two are addressed by the preacher to his brethren in the ministry, and the third was delivered to hearers at large. In the discourses to the clergy, Mr. Vaughan urges the importance of preaching, calling it the great master-engine of ministerial usefulness, and explains at large his views of the manner in which Christ should be preached. A proper distinction is also made between 'loiterers' and 'labourers' in the spiritual harvest. When he comes to notice the *indirect* ministration of the clergy by their conduct, he very neatly observes that, 'though we cannot subscribe to the maxim as generally interpreted,

"He can't be wrong whose life is in the right,"

we may invert it, and it has a lesson for us.' Having shewn that the ministerial office is an office of labour, he adds, 'My beloved brethren, let us ask ourselves severally, Do we find it such? do we make it such? do we prove it to be such?'—Happy would it be for the Archdeaconry of Leicester if all its clergy answered in the affirmative.

In the last sermon, Mr. Vaughan is very orthodox, or what is now called *evangelical*. It is here asserted that 'every individual comes into the world *guilty*;' a proposition which we know not how to reconcile with any correct definition of *guilt*. The preacher, indeed, seems aware of the difficulty, for he adds in a note, 'Perhaps it would be better if we could altogether repress our reasonings respecting the origin of our present condition.' We are told that the true faith *appears* to have an Antinomian tendency. Whether Mr. Vaughan's notion of Christian doctrine be correct, we shall not discuss: but we are persuaded that he is a conscientious orthodox mixture of long-grass and green foliage, brown heath and beautiful wild flowers, adds to the impressive effect of this secluded scene.'

The interior of this Hebridian grotto, which is not to be surveyed without some unpleasant and even hazardous scrambling, exhibits various fantastic configurations, in the form both of stalactites and stalagmites; among which may be particularized, the *monk*, the *nun*, the *golden fleece*, &c. We are, moreover, conducted into a splendid saloon, and to the brink of a large fountain or pool which the visitors cross on a plank.

'On the right of this spacious hall, about eight feet above the surface of the pool, the wall recedes a little, forming a narrow bench for the reception, as it seems, of an admirable group of figures in alto relievo, which are placed upon it. These are six in number, as large as life, and white as alabaster. They are Caryatides and Persians, in graceful attitudes, the drapery flowing in the most accurate stile. The prominent figure is Persian, who seems to hold in his hand a roll of parchment. This assemblage of figures is encompassed with a multitude of ornamental festoons of leaves, and garlands of corymbiated spar. They are whimsically diversified, and occupy an intercolumniation of pillars, which are chiefly engaged, though some are insulated and embellished with shining crystallizations and stalagmites of great beauty.'

To the courage and persevering zeal of Mrs. Gillespie, a resident of Skye, the public are indebted for the discovery of this singular excavation; for this lady appears first to have explored it in June 1808, accompanied by a boat's crew. Her report afterward induced the proprietor, attended by herself and her husband, to penetrate its recesses; and the farther they advanced, the more were they gratified and astonished.

The length of this cave, from its entrance to its termination in a passage too narrow and steep for farther research, is reckoned at about 250 feet; its width, in some places, is eight or ten feet: but the circumference of the saloon is sixty-seven feet, and the roof of this last is too lofty to be distinctly visible. The measurements, however, are rather vaguely stated; and the whole account is somewhat desultory and pedantic. We really can scarcely extend our toleration to such words as *exudate*, *coruscant*, *cornial*, *superfice*, and *stirious*. The confusion of *these* and *those* may be overlooked on the north of the Tweed: but no such geographical boundary will justify the violation of the well-known concord of noun and verb, a violation of which various instances might be quoted within the compass of this small volume.

The *Mermaid*, written during a journey to the Hebrides, by a gentleman well known in the literary world, possesses considerable poetical merit, though the story rather offends against probability. Granting, however, that a marine syren may lock up a living mortal in the chambers of the deep, we see no good reason why she should lose her prisoner in a very silly manner: but the verses, it must be allowed, are pretty, simple, and pathetic. Let the concluding stanzas exemplify the rest:

‘ An oozy film her limbs o'erspread,
While slow unfolds her scaly train,
With gluey fangs her hands were clad,
She lash'd with webbed fins the main.

‘ Proud swells her heart, she deems at last
To charm him with her Syren tongue,
And as the shelving rocks they pass'd,
She raised her voice, and sweetly sung.

‘ In softer, sweeter strains she sung,
Slow gliding by the moon-light bay,
When light to land the Chieftain sprung,
And hail'd the maid of Colonsay.

‘ Oh! sad the Mermaid's gay notes fell,
And sadly sunk remote at sea,
So sadly mourns the wreathed shell
Of Jura's shore, its parent sea.

‘ And when the circling year returns,
The sailor knows that fated day,
For sadly still the Mermaid mourns
The warlike chief of Colonsay.’

In the last stanza but one, *sea*, it will be observed, is made to rhyme with itself; and in another, we have remarked *green* corresponding to *beam*: but the versification, in general, is smooth and correct.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The letter from the author of “Observations on Virgil's fourth Eclogue” is transmitted to the gentleman, under whose consideration that work at present remains.

P. Q. will see that we have not been unmindful of M. de Montgaillard's political work, just published, which he thinks is likely to attract some notice; and we are sorry that we were not able, after that time of the month at which it appeared, to conclude our report of it in the present number.

‘ *A friend of the Dilettanti Society*’ is informed that we propose to give an account, in our next Review, of the splendid volume of *Specimens of antient Sculpture* which that learned body some time since offered to the lovers of the Arts.

NOTICE.

The APPENDIX to Vol. lxvi. of the M. R. is published with this Number, and contains, as usual, a number of articles on interesting FOREIGN PUBLICATIONS; with the *General Title*, *Table of Contents*, and *Index*, for the volume.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For FEBRUARY, 1812.

Art. I. *Specimens of Antient Sculpture, Egyptian, Etruscan, Greek, and Roman,* selected from different Collections in Great Britain. By the Society of Dilettanti. Vol. I. Folio. pp. 209. with 75 Plates, and 3 Vignettes. Price 18l. 18s. half-bound. Payne.

If the remark of the elegant Ovid be correct, which has been so often quoted that we dare not repeat it, respecting the influence of the Fine Arts on the manners of society, their culture must be desired as one among the safe-guards against barbarism, and their advanced state must be received as an evidence of the civilization of the empire in which they flourish. We have pleasure, therefore, in announcing that a truly splendid production is here offered to the lovers and professors of this science, worthy of appearing under the auspices of the Dilettanti Society, and exhibiting numerous fine examples of Antient Sculpture from various collections in this country. Though, however, the volume is issued under the authority of this learned body, yet, as in the instance of other works bearing the name of a Society, the selections, as well as the text, are evidently the labour of one individual; whom we easily recognize, but whose name we do not feel ourselves at liberty to mention until the appearance of the promised second volume. We may, nevertheless, congratulate the public on being here presented with the investigations of an accomplished writer, whom nothing has deterred from an unceasing endeavour to explore the Mysteries and to discover the sentiments which guided the antient Greeks, in the beautiful representations of nature that were exhibited by the unrivalled powers of their chissel. The account of their sculpture has been judiciously divided into two parts; the first, which constitutes the present volume, treating of it only as a work of Art, and the second being intended to elucidate the Mysteries.

A general history of Antient Art, in the form of an Introduction, leads us to the succeeding plates, which it serves to elucidate. This arrangement renders the whole design highly interesting, and, added to the learning and discrimination which are displayed in the text and the beautiful representations of well-selected subjects which are given in the engravings, will always

make the performance a desirable object of attainme
Students of antient art will be aware that the plan followed
this undertaking was attempted by the celebrated Winck
mann, in his History of the Arts: we say *attempted*, because tl
production is so desultory, although it displays great learnii
that few persons can derive much satisfactory knowlege fr
the perusal even of so elaborate a treatise. By keeping t
parts separated, however, as in the present publication, t
writer has been enabled to give to each a due share of attenti
and to afford the reader more advantageous information on
several subjects;—information, which is not only the result
the ingenious writer's own extensive knowlege, but the value
which is greatly enhanced by the benefit which he deriv
from an intimate acquaintance with the late Mr. Char
Townley, whose whole life was devoted to this study.—V
reserve any farther remarks to our notice of the work in det
beginning with the Introduction, from which we shall f
it to be both our duty and our pleasure to borrow very copic
quotations.—It is well observed, at the commencement, tha

'In those Arts, which peculiarly and immediately belong to imi
tion, we may discover some rude efforts in the rudest state of origi
nature; there being scarcely any nation or tribe hitherto discover
that had not made some attempts to imitate, by lines or forms, t
natural objects which surrounded them. Feeble and imperfect
these primitive efforts are, the principle of them is always good. T
artist appears, indeed, to have been destitute of the skill as well as
the implements and materials belonging to a civilized state of lif
but he was, at the same time, destitute of the artificial habits and c
rupt prejudices of it. He looked at Nature attentively and at Natu
only; and as he saw her through no medium, he saw her witho
any disguise. Hence, though his knowledge was defective, his ta
was just; and while his hand erred, his eye was correct. This
observable in all the specimens of savage art, that have come unc
our observation. The intention is good, though the execution
bad; and rudely and indistinctly as the limbs and features are mark
they are nevertheless placed in the manner best adapted to express t
action, passion, or sentiment meant to be signified.

'The direct reverse of this is observable in the earliest specim
of civilized art that we know of: both the Ægyptians and Hind
having apparently ceased to look at Nature, otherwise than throu
the corrupt and distorted medium of their own fanciful imitations
her, long before any examples of their art now extant were produc
Yet many of these examples of that of the former people are of e
tremely remote antiquity; when the mechanism of art which suppl
the means of its more liberal and scientific exertions was in its
fancy. The hard material, indeed, in which many of the hierogl
phical sculptures of Upper Ægypt are wrought, as well as the e
treme sharpness and neatness of finish, observable both in them a
in those of the Obelisks brought from that country, abundant
prove that the art of hardening metal was well known to the anti
Ægyptians; at the same time that their works in brass show them

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have been wholly ignorant of the more obvious art of casting figures, in that material, in a mould taken from a plastic model.

'Plate I. of this volume represents a statue of Jupiter Ammon two feet high, made out of three pieces of copper beaten together till the tangent surfaces fitted each other, and then hammered and hewn into the shape of a human body with a ram's head. This must have been a work of great labour, though of little effect, the parts having been finished with much care and nice precision, though the whole has but a clumsy and heavy appearance. The eyes were probably of glass or gems, made to imitate nature; such as still remain in the bronze figure of Osiris engraved in plate II. but which are not often observable in monuments of Ægyptian art.

'In works of less sanctity and magnificence, they not only spared themselves the expence of these splendid decorations, but also that of the quantity of metal, by plating it upon wood instead of hammering it solid. In this manner was a small figure of Osiris executed; the head of which, with the remains of the original wood in it, is exhibited in the vignette, fig. 1. At what period the Ægyptians began to cast figures of their deities and sacred animals in brass, of which immense numbers in the smaller sizes are still extant, it is scarcely possible even to conjecture; for as their works are all in the same style, their art admits of no epochs. Imitations of them, too, continued to be made under the Macedonian kings and Roman emperors, with such skill that they cannot be always disinguished from the originals; particularly under Hadrian and the Antonines, when the later Ægyptian worship began to prevail over the whole empire; and household gods made after the Ægyptian fashion were every where received as objects of private devotion.

' This Ægyptian style or fashion of work is very peculiar; and, amidst innumerable faults and defects, has two distinguished merits of very opposite kinds, breadth and sharpness; which place it in a rank far above that of either the Chinese or Hindoos; whose figures are equally void of all symmetry of form, grace of action, or truth of expression, without having any of the more austere and less obvious excellencies of art to compensate for the deficiencies. In the head of the Jupiter Ammon above cited, there is an air of severe dignity above the ordinary character of the animal; and in the bend of the horns, and in the line of the nose, there is an easy flow which approaches towards elegance. In the head of green basalt engraved in plate III. and the bronze figure in plate II., both the breadth and sharpness of the Ægyptian style are beautifully marked. Nothing can exceed the firmness and unity expressed in the swell of the cheeks, or the even steadiness, with which the brows are arched, and the lips opened; though without any of that muscular play or instantaneous action which even the inferior artists of Greece infused into their works. The surface is that of a human body; but of a human body motionless and unorganised, without joint or sinews, or any other means or power of action or exertion.

' This torpid state, in which the art of sculpture continued during so many ages in Ægypt, is not so much to be attributed to the genius of the people, as to the constitution of their government, both civil and ecclesiastical. All trades and professions being hereditary, the way of life of each individual was predestined, and the boundaries of his ambition circumscribed even before his birth. The jealous temper of the hierarchy, too, dreading every innovation, as not knowing where it might stop, when once suffered to begin, limited the exertions of art to given forms of the rudest and most ungraceful kind; so that taste and invention were wholly excluded; and all the excellence by which the artist could hope to gratify his ambition, confined to the finishing of detached parts, without any reference to their general effect in the whole composition.

'The want of this effect is peculiarly observable in all the works of the Ægyptians, whether in sculpture or in architecture; for as art when thus limited and restrained became a mere handicraft-business, the artist finished the part, upon which he was employed, according to a scale given him, without any consideration of the effect which it might have, from any other place besides that in which he stood to work it. Hence the small hieroglyphical figures on their obelisks and temples are finished in the flattest relief, with all the minute accuracy of detail, though at the height of more than sixty feet from the eye; while the large statues that stood on the ground are executed with a degree of breadth and boldness bordering on neglect.

'The same mechanical arrangement in the orders of civil society, and strict hereditary limitation of every individual to a particular way of life, prevented their artists from having any living models of grace or elegance to copy: for men in such a state become like the plants in a shorn hedge, each fashioned to his station and moulded to his place, with all the distinctive characteristics of nature, except such only as belong to the detail of his composition, cut down and destroyed. His limbs and features, when examined separately, are, indeed, as nature intended them to be: but all the general actions of his body are crampt and methodised like those of his mind; and are in reality as unlike those of a man, as the fantastic forms of a garden yew are to the real shape of a tree.

'Travellers have observed that almost all savages are graceful in their actions and attitudes; the reason of which is, that their bodies follow the immediate impulse of their minds without any limitation or restraint; so that a general harmony of movement accompanies every exertion; and in this harmony grace principally consists. Their minds, too, never having been bent by methodical study, nor their bodies stiffened or mannerised by mechanical labour, all their conceptions are bold and vigorous, and all their acts and gestures free and animated. In the desultory efforts of fraud and violence, on which their whole attention is employed, the end of every artifice and the object of every exertion is in view; so that the keenness, with which it is pursued, being in proportion to its proximity, gives a degree of spirit and energy to every action, or gesture, such as the husbandman and mechanic, who drudge on through a long succession of uniform labour for a distant return of profit, never feel. In proportion as the arts of civilized society advance towards perfection, all kinds of productive labour are more subdivided, and men graduated and classed into a greater number of ranks and orders; by which means the specific return of profit to every individual act of productive industry becomes not only more slow and circuitous but less obvious and distinct. Hence the actions of the body become less immediately dependent on the affections of the mind; and every movement and gesture grows dull and heavy through neglect, or studied and fantastick through fashion and caprice, which generally aim at what is new and difficult, and of course ungraceful.

'As the orders of society were more rigidly separated, and the exertions of individuals more strictly limited, in Ægypt than in any other country, it naturally followed that all their productions were more uniform and methodical. The works of one age exactly resemble those of another; every attempt at improvement being rather dreaded than encouraged. Even the physicians were restrained to the use of the prescriptions recorded in the sacred Books; and the cure of every particular disease and every particular part of the body belonged to a separate class of the profession. From the manner in which their statues are composed and finished, it is not improbable that the artists were under a similar regulation; which is certainly favourable to manufactures, such as the Ægyptians appear to have excelled in. A glass bead or brass toy will be more perfectly and expeditiously finished, if it is cast by one, cut by another, and polished by a third; but a statue, in order to represent the action and expression of an organized body, must have every component part finished by a hand acting under the influence and direction of the mind, which conceived the whole. To represent, too, the external surface of a human body in action, with force and precision, some knowledge of its internal structure is necessary; and this the Ægyptian artists were prevented from acquiring, by the religious sanctity with which the remains of the dead were protected from violation. The same spirit of superstition which thus limited their science also cramped and fettered their taste; the jealous temper of the hierarchy suffering nothing gay, festive, or elegant, to enliven its solitary gloom. Poetry, music, and dancing, the delights of the Greeks, and the constant accompaniments of every act of public devotion, were either unknown, or prohibited; so that the mind of the artist had no external stimulus to excite its internal energy, and call out invention as a substitute to science. Humble and timid imitation of particular parts, in order to produce a crude unwieldy whole, of which the general forms and outlines were limited by custom and superstition, was all that he had to hope; and that he might not excel, even in this paltry detail, nature was as niggardly in her models, as society was adverse in its institutions: for it is generally agreed that the Ægyptians, though healthy, large, and robust, were clumsy in their forms, and coarse in their features. Like other African tribes, they were wool-haired, flat-nosed, thick-lipped, and bow-legged; and, if not absolutely blacks, very nearly approaching to it in their colour. The women, too, were remarkable for the disgusting deformity of extremely large breasts.

'Contrary to the generally received opinion, we are inclined to think that the Ægyptians contributed little or nothing to the rise or progress of the arts in other countries. Their superstitious abhorrence of navigation, and unsociable exclusion of strangers from their territory, restrained all the skill and science, which they ever possessed, served, within the boundaries of the sandy deserts and saline marshes which surrounded them. Their arts and artists appear to have been wholly unknown to the Greeks at the time when the Iliad and Odyssey were composed: though their skill in medicine is celebrated in the latter poem. The Phœnicians, particularly those of Sidon, were then the great masters in all works of taste and elegance, from the texture of the tissue robe, and embossment of the enchased cup, to the amber beads and toys which their merchants brought from Sidon, and exposed to sale wherever there was a probability of finding purchasers. In the time of Solomon, Tyre seems to have possessed the superiority in these arts, and to have kept it till her daughter Carthage rivalled and surpassed her. The sculptures in the temple built by that Prince, which appear, in defiance of the Mosaical law, to have been very costly and magnificent, were made by Tyrian artists: but, in the early time of Rome, that republic, and probably all the south-west of Europe, were supplied with articles of costly furniture and elegant luxury from Carthage.'

Speaking of the Phœnicians being rather *artizans* than *artists*, it is remarked that

'This is a distinction more easily felt than explained: for though every person conversant in works of art, whether in sculpture, painting, or drawing, instantly feels the difference between the work of a master and that of a mechanic, it is extremely difficult to make it intelligible to any one who does not feel it. It does not at all consist in the exactitude of the imitation: for a wax-work portrait, or a snuff-box miniature, are generally much truer representations of their objects than the most studied and elaborate works of the greatest artists; and it is only the pertness of the superficial pretender to taste, that appeals to the rule and compass, to prove the nicety of his eye in detecting a fault. Such critics only attempt to cover the defects of nature by the parade of science; the powers of feeling and understanding being scarce, but those of measuring and counting common. The greatest sculptor of Greece (Lysippus) boldl claimed, as the privilege of his art, to make men as they seemed t be, and not as they really were; a maxim, which shews such deep insight into the theory of the art, and such an extensive kno ledge of its spirit and principles, that it will be more fully consider when we come to treat of the happy period, in which that great art lived. At present, it may be sufficient to observe, that it is this de theoretical knowledge brought into practice, and embellished w that facility of execution which results from much exercise a experience, that peculiarly distinguishes the work of a master fro that of a mechanic; and to the real judge discloses the characters a liberal profession, instead of those of a sordid trade. It is th which constitutes the difference between the original and the copy for it can only appear in perfection in works which the hand h executed under the immediate influence of the mind that conceive them.'

In relation to the early times of the Greeks, and the grea influence and emulation produced by the excellence of thei poetry and their varied works of art, the learned writer thus proceeds:

'The state of society and manners, both in that, and the succeeding ages, was peculiarly well adapted to receive and foster these favourable impressions; and to give full effect to the sublime and elegant ideas which they excited. In all their fashions of dress, address, and personal demeanor, the Greeks were polished and yet simple; adhering to nature but still endeavouring to elevate and embellish her; so that they united the advantages of savage and social life, in the models which they presented for imitation. In their arms and horses, indeed, they were splendid, ostentatious, and expensive; but, in civil life, all personal finery and showy decoration were reckoned signs of barbarism and effeminacy. After the rise of the Lacedæmonian power, and consequent prevalence of their manners, not only the use of all ornaments of gold or silver in dress, but even the wearing of linen, incurred this disgraceful imputation. Their houses and furniture were in the style of frugal simplicity; so that the whole of their superfluous wealth was left for the encouragement of liberal art, to which taste and vanity at once directed them. The magnificent porticoes, which surrounded their temples, not only honoured the deities and decorated the cities to which they belonged, but afforded the inhabitants of those warm climates the most comfortable and agreeable places to walk and converse in, protected from the rays of the sun, and yet open to the breezes of the air. The statues and paintings which adorned them, shewed at once their wealth, their taste, and their piety; whilst the smaller works of this kind, which private munificence or devotion consecrated in private houses or public sacristies, gratified personal, as the others did national vanity. Even where the more selfish and ostentatious gratifications of rich dress and furniture were aimed at, they were not sought for in splendid and costly materials, which could only shew the wealth of the possessor, but in that elegance of design and delicacy of execution, which might at once gratify and display his taste and intelligence. The lamps which lighted their apartments were not of silver and gold variously burnished; but of brass wrought by the best sculptor that the purchaser could afford to employ; and left to its natural tarnish to shew the work to advantage. The gems, too, which they wore in their rings and fibulæ, were not diamonds and rubies highly polished; but onyxes and cornelians skilfully engraved with elegant and learned devices: for a mere shining stone, adapted only to dazzle the sense without having any thing either to please the imagination or to inform the understanding, was too puerile a toy to merit the attention of an antient Greek.

'Whilst private manners thus co-operated with the established religion to encourage art, public institutions were equally calculated to form artists worthy of such encouragement. The periodical gymnastic festivals called together, from every part of Greece and her colonies, all the young men, distinguished for personal strength and agility; and exhibited them in various trials of force and dexterity, without any covering but a zone or girdle, at first; and afterwards, under the prevalence of Lacedæmonian manners, without any covering at all. Here the artists had opportunities of observing the human form in every variety of action and attitude, not placed as a model in an academy, but impelled and directed by the spontaneous impulse of the mind, and ennobled by the conscious dignity of the person: for in these honourable contests men of the highest rank, both of birth and situation, entered the lists, and displayed their feats of agility and strength in a style suitable to their characters; and with joints and muscles, that had neither been stiffened by labour nor bloated by intemperance.

'It was long, however, before art, even with all these advantages, learned to catch those momentary actions and transitory graces, for which it can have no stationary models; and which, therefore, can only be imitated by memory and science directing a hand perfected by long practice, so as to be able to give at once form and dimensions to the conceptions of the mind, without obliging the eye to recur to its archetypes. Every mechanic can, by means of his rule and his compasses, copy what he sees before him; but the real artist is he, who has learnt to generalize his ideas of nature; to look at her in the abstract as well as in the detail; and then to embody in one figure, by means of a skilful hand and just eye, those excellences which his observation has gleaned from many.—If he is obliged, in the formation of every limb, joint, or feature, to recur for instruction to individual bodies, he will be in the same predicament as the writer who is obliged in the formation of every sentence to consult his dictionary and his grammar. Each may produce something perfectly correct and true; but it will necessarily be cold, stiff, and uninteresting.'

A discriminating account follows, of the progress of Sculpture among the Greeks, which we should be tempted to extract, if the length of it were not too extensive: but we must content ourselves with laying before our readers a few interesting passages, as specimens of the general style of the whole.

'The practice of making the features, upon which the charact and expression of the countenance principally depend, of a mo splendid material than the rest, appears to have been very general the early stages of the art, and was again revived in its decline und the Roman emperors. In works that are very highly finished, a in which the imitation of real life is very exact, its effect is peculia dazzling and imposing, and extremely well calculated to inspire se ments of awe and devotion; but it does not succeed in sculpture which the details are neglected, or which aims at general effects on for then there appears to be a stile of imitation employed in the pa which is not preserved in the whole; and the effect becomes that abortive trick or unsuccessful attempt at deception.'—

'Of Phidias's general stile of composition, the friezes and metop of the Temple of Minerva at Athens, published by Mr. Stuart, a since brought to England, may afford us competent information; b as these are merely architectural sculptures executed from his desig and under his directions, probably by workmen scarcely ranked amo artists, and meant to be seen at the heighth of more than forty feet from the eye; they can throw but little light upon the more important details of his art. From the degree and mode of relief in the friezes, they appear to have been intended to produce an effect like that of the simplest kind of monochromatic painting when seen from their proper point of sight; which effect must have been extremely light and elegant. The relief in the metopes is much higher, so as to exhibit the figures nearly complete, and the details are more accurately and elaborately made out; but they are so different in their degrees of merit, as to be evidently the works of many different persons, some of whom would not have been entitled to the rank of artists in a much less cultivated and fastidious age. The well known sitting figures of Jupiter, which appear on the silver coins of Alexander the Great and several of his successors, were probably copied with slight variations from the magnificent colossal figure executed by this artist in ivory and gold, at Olympia: for we have not observed it on any coins or other monuments anterior to this time, though so common afterwards. The general composition may, however, have been earlier; as no very extensive variety seems to have been allowed in the attitudes of the deities; and the statues of the Assyrian god, whom Herodotus calls Jupiter Belus, were equally in a sitting posture; such probably as appear on several Phœnician coins, the age of which is uncertain, though all that we have seen appear to be posterior to Phidias. Two sitting figures of Jupiter in marble, probably copied from that of Olympia above mentioned, are extant, tolerably entire; one of which, formerly in the Verospi Palace at Rome, is now at Paris; and the other at Marbrook Hall, in Cheshire, the seat of the late John Smith Barry, Esq. The latter is much the best, but having fallen upon its face, the eyebrows, nose, and lips, are restored. The circumstance of a very celebrated painter having been employed upon the original, with the sculptor, to enrich still further with various colours, especially in the draperies, materials in themselves so rich and splendid, proves that it must have been gorgeous to a degree, which we should now think extravagantly glittering and gaudy. It also seems to have been too big for the temple, large as that was; the head nearly touching the ceiling, so as to excite the unpleasant idea that if it was to rise from its sitting posture, it must lift up the roof. It was nevertheless universally allowed to be a most grand and imposing object; though the works of Polycletus in the same materials were thought by competent judges to be more perfect examples of art than those of Phidias, which were superior in size and magnificence. The figure of Minerva engraved in plate XXV. of this volume seems to be a copy of the celebrated statue which the latter artist executed in these materials for the Parthenon at Athens; and it is probable that the heads of the same goddess on the silver tetradrachms of that city, struck after the art had become mature, have been copied from the colossal statue of brass by the same hand in the Acropolis.'—

' Accurate and extensive as was the science of these great artists in the physiology of the human body, it seems to have been more the result of that daily observation, for which the manners and habits of the powers of change are sooner exhausted; and it became necessary after so long a period of successful exertion, and amidst such a profusion of master-pieces, either not to deviate at all or to deviate into vice and extravagance. Thus, though many magnificent works were executed under the patronage of the Kings of Ægypt, Syria, and Pergamus, they appear to have been chiefly repetitions; and the artists employed are allowed to have been upon a lower scale of merit than their predecessors.

‘Of these repetitions are probably the Farnese Hercules, the Torso of the Belvidere, and the statue called the Fighting Gladiator; for if works of such merit had been originals, we can scarcely doubt that the names inscribed upon them would have been recorded by some antient author. The last, indeed, is manifestly copied from a figure in brass; and the form of the letters in the names in the two others proves that they could not have been inscribed more than a century before the Christian æra, though the statues might have been wrought earlier; for, it was no uncommon practice, under the first Roman emperors, to inscribe the names of more antient artists upon their real or supposed works, either to enhance their value, or impose upon the credulity of wealthy and ignorant collectors. The execution of the Torso is certainly far above the age of the inscription; and its composition still above its execution.

‘Notwithstanding all these unfavourable circumstances, Grecian art maintained both the dignity of its style and the delicacy of its execution in a very high degree of excellence, down to the last stage of the Macedonian power in Asia; the coins of Antiochus VI., Trypho, and Antiochus VII., only differ from the portraits of the finest times, in having more luxuriance and softness of manner. Even some of those of Mithridates Eupater, King of Pontus, the last independent monarch of the civilized world, have all the grandeur of character peculiar to the Grecian style, though it be less skilfully and vigorously expressed than in happier periods.

‘To these ages of the decline and relaxation of art from vigour and sublimity to luxuriance and softness, we attribute the articles engraved in plates LXI.—VIII. inclusive. And here we must pause to consider the effects of a great and disastrous change in the affairs of mankind, which brought all the learned and civilized nations of the earth under the hard dominion of one military republic; and, in its consequences, plunged them into barbarism and utter darkness.’

An elaborate history of the Roman polity next ensues, consisting of nearly thirty pages, with occasionally a cursory observation on the contemporaneous state of art; in which the author displays an uncommon share of acute discernment respecting the political effects of the constitution and temper of the Roman republic. While, however, we render justice to the abilities of the writer, we must stop to inquire how far so long a dissertation on the Roman politics is consistent with a work which is professedly devoted to the arts. In our opinion, it seems injurious, by withdrawing our attention from the main purport of the publication. Political changes, as affecting the style of art, are proper to be noticed in a treatise on this subject: but if the observations be not condensed, the reader is imperceptibly led to conceive that he is perusing a history of political events, and forgets all that has preceded relative to the main topic of his study: whereas it should be the great care of a writer to keep the attention of his reader to that principal object, making all matter, which in any way partakes of the nature of a digression, so concise that, while it relieves, it is not likely to lead astray.

The Introduction concludes the Roman history with the following remark on its effect on the arts:

> ‘Amidst the disorders of their military democracy, the clouds of barbarism and ignorance rapidly overspred the earth. The figures on the triumphal arch of Severus prove, that all taste or skill in composition had vanished even in his reign: though the portraits, both in marble and on coins, prove, that accuracy of imitation and nicety of finishing prevailed even to the time of the Gordians. Farther it is in vain to trace the progress of art; which, in the last stages of corruption and debasement, is necessarily as uninteresting, as it is interesting in its first efforts of improvement. The primary attempts of a people emerging from barbarism have always a character of original meaning and intelligence, which, how imperfectly soever expressed, will always excite sentiments similar to those from which it sprang: but the operose productions of a people sinking into darkness are either servile and vapid imitations of the works of better days, or crude and abortive efforts of invention; which, being no longer guided by feeling and observation, seeks only for novelty, and thus deviates into glitter and extravagance. Of original compositions of this period, we scarcely know of any extant, except those on the arch of Severus; and perhaps the figures on the head-piece of the helmet found in Lancashire, and published by the Society of Antiquaries. It is possible, too, that the figures engraved in plates LXXIV.—V. of this volume may be of the invention as well as workmanship of this century; for we do not remember to have met with this fat and bloated form of the young Bacchus in any monuments of earlier times; and it appears to have arisen out of the corruption of religion as well as of art. Coarse and inelegant, however, as the design of these figures is, the surface is more soft and fleshy than the best modern sculptor has ever been able to give to metal. The mystical and symbolical composition of the groupe, plate LXXV., which will be explained in the preliminary dissertation to the next volume, may seem indeed to be of an earlier and better age; but the mystic system, though degraded and corrupted, was not yet extinct; and the meanness of the characters, poverty of the drapery, and feebleness of the action, all indicate an expiring effort of the art.’

Of the examples of sculpture with which we are here presented, by far the largest portion, as may be supposed, is supplied from the collection of the late Mr. Charles Townley, now in the British Museum. They are accompanied by descriptions, in general very appropriate: but in some cases betraying too great a bias in favour of one artist, and bestowing too severe a censure on another, among those who have been employed for the drawings. The principal artists engaged to delineate the sculptures were Mr. Howard and Mr. Agar; and the drawings of Mr. Howard are engraved by Skelton in the line-manner, while those of Mr. Agar are engraved by himself in the dotted-manner. As one example of unmerited censure and praise, we shall notice plates 5 and 6 of the same subject. Of plate 6., drawn by Howard, the writer says; 'the artist has been guilty of a fault which we have found it difficult to prevent, that of indulging his own taste for the elegant and beautiful, at the expence of fidelity of imitation: but in the first, (plate 5.) the strongly marked coarse features of the primitive style are accurately rendered, and the general character of the hand, which is probably taken from that of a colossal statue, and consequently made to be seen at a distance from the eye, is well preserved.' Unfortunately for the author's remark, the drawing thus praised is so very little like the original sculpture, that the latter would not be well recollected from this representation of it, while no such difficulty would occur on looking at the censured delineation. We are sorry to say that the same tendency to commendation and blame generally pervades the descriptions. In making this observation, we do not attribute any malevolent motive to the author; for we are satisfied that an enthusiastic zeal for depicting the hard manner of the early works has led him to desire more than it was requisite to accomplish in that way, and has prevented him from exercising his usual judgment in discriminating the different talents of the artists employed. We are not insensible to the propriety of a *dry manner*, in order to present in a drawing a just notion of the appearance of a piece of sculpture: but a wide difference prevails between a *dry manner*, and giving hard lines in a drawing which do not exist in the original which it pretends to copy. Mr. Howard's very superior talent of delineating the human figure, had it been properly appreciated, would have led to his being employed in delineatng those specimens of sculpture which are of the first-rate excellence; reserving the labours of his brother-artist for those which display the *hard manner* that is more consonant to his style of work.

Among the engravings in this volume, are representations of the small bronze figures, in Mr. Knight's collection, which were found in the year 1792 in Epirus. It was an observation of the late Mr. Charles Townley that, until we were acquainted

with

viously occupied in the northern department of the island; and we are now invited to notice the existence, in our own metropolis, of another learned fraternity, whose labours have indeed a more limited range, but promise to be conducted on a very judicious and liberal principle, and to contribute important additions to our stock of geological information. The discerning and truly patriotic portion of the community will, doubtless, rejoice to learn that this laudable establishment is frequently receiving the most respectable accessions of patronage and resources; that a considerable collection of specimens and an appropriate library have been already formed; and that particular attention has been bestowed on the preparation of mineralogical maps, plans, and sections, with a reference not only to the intrinsic knowlege which such expedients are calculated to convey, but, in the language of the editors, 'as laying the foundation of a general geological map of the British territory, and on account of the material assistance which may thus be afforded to future inquirers. For, they are persuaded, nothing is more consonant to the wisdom of the Society, than that every mineralogist, purposing to visit any part of the kingdom, should have free access to all documents which may happen to be in its possession.'

With a degree of moderation and forbearance which cannot be too highly commended, the contributors to the present volume seldom press on their readers their speculative notions concerning the modes in which particular fossil substances may have acquired their present condition; nor do they struggle to maintain or to impugn any peculiar articles of a geological creed. It is, indeed, our decided opinion that our provision of accurate data is still by far too scanty, to serve as the ground-work of any theory whatever; or to guide us with safety and confidence in the formation of general principles. At the same time, with regard to the transactions now before us, none of the writers are precluded from hazarding their own conjectures on their own responsibility.

> 'In the selection which the editors have made from the communications read at the Society's meetings, they have been influenced by a desire of laying before the public new and important information in the different departments of geological research.
>
> 'The periods, at which the subsequent volume of the transactions of the Society may appear, must depend upon the zeal and exertions of the members at large; and upon the contributions which may be received from individuals, devoted to geological pursuits, and who, though not immediately connected with the Society, may yet feel disposed to promote its objects.'

Though the number of articles contained in this volume amounts only to eighteen, some of them present such a com-

plication

along a part of the eastern shore: but the remainder of the eastern and northern sides consists of a series of flat bays, divided by interposed ridges of high rocks. Gneiss, granite, sienite, and granitel, occasionally intersected by veins of quartz, trap, felspar, &c., constitute its principal structure. The felspar and mica being both very ferruginous, the granite and its modifications have a considerable tendency to decomposition, and are consequently observed in all states, from that of a friable rock to a gravelly clay, and even to a perfect soil, forming the pebbly or sandy loam which prevails through the island:

> 'The predominant rock towards the bay of St. Sampson's, is a grey or black granitel, consisting of quartz and hornblende mixed in various proportions. Detached masses of this rock are also found in the higher grounds, as well as among the gneiss of the southern coast. The hornblende in some places predominates so as to give a sort of hornblende porphyry; and in others, every other ingredient is excluded, and a hornblende rock alone remains. I observed some specimens, traversed by a derivative rock of the same composition, interspersed with minute grains of pyrites; the only trace of the kind I perceived in this island.
>
> 'This stone is very hard and sonorous, and admirably adapted for building, as it easily breaks into squared masses before the hammer. It is more particularly fitted for paving, from its extreme hardness and toughness; and for that purpose it is exported in large quantities to London and to Portsmouth, by the name of Guernsey-stone, or St. Sampson's stone.
>
> 'It has been a common belief in England that emery was a product of this island, but of this I could neither obtain physical nor historical evidence.'

Sark, or Sercq, is rather more than three miles in length, and does not exceed a mile and a half in extreme breadth. In one part, it is not many yards wide, being nearly divided by a high and narrow ridge. Unlike Alderney and Guernsey, it has no declivity to the sea, except a small descent at its northern extremity. Its eastern side is generally of a granitic, and its western of a trap or schistose formation. 'Such is the nature of the cliffs, that except at the Creux, where a tunnel is cut through the rock, there is hardly any entrance to the land, but by climbing. It is a very strong natural fortification, and might at a small expence be rendered impregnable.' The trap-rocks are very hard and compact, especially where they come in contact with the granite; and they seem to run from north to south in the form of indistinct strata, dipping to the east, under an angle of 40°. Their many large and deep fissures mark the antient repositories of veins, of which the materials have been washed away. Other veins are still filled with decomposed granitic stones, and smaller intersections are formed of green and red jaspers, coarse agates, horn-stones, &c. The narro neck, which unites the two portions of the island, and which i very precipitous on the eastern side, is traversed by a vein porcelain clay, contaminated by purple, red, and yellow oxy of iron, and intersected by reticulations of quartz; which also dispersed through it in the form of grains: the whole th indicating its probable origin from decomposed granite. T sienitic masses are traversed by various veins of trap, and l some of a brick-red felspar:

> 'Further to the north, and on the eastern side, is the port of t Creux. This is a dry beach, in a cove formed by high cliffs of arg laceous rock, of which the faces are absolutely perpendicular in mo parts, and as smooth as a wall. Being inaccessible from the lan and at the same time the only secure beach on the island, a commu cation was formed in 1588 by De Carterets, who excavated a tunn through the rock; taking advantage of a loose vein which travers it. This passage is occupied by a gate, and thus the chief landin place is rendered defensible by a very small force. The whole strikingly picturesque and singular.'

The descent to Port des Moulins is through a narrow pass o wild and romantic rocks of grauwacke and grauwacke slate, i nearly horizontal strata, which are occasionally intersected b veins of quartz, and, in one or two places, by wide and perpendicular veins of the magnesian class of stones; such a various kinds of steatite, talc, talcaceous schistus, asbestos, an *Lapis ollaris*; which last is applied by the inhabitants to economical purposes.

Jersey is about ten miles long, and, on an average, nearl five broad; it is much elevated to the north, shelves away t the south, is every where intersected by narrow vallies, and i beset by many banks and shoals. In a general point of vie the whole of the high and northern tract may be said to consis of granitic rock; and the southern and flatter part, of a mass schistus incumbent on that rock. A very beautiful flesh-colour felspar, susceptible of a fine polish, abounds in the rocks Mont Mado:

> 'There are quarries established on this spot from whence stone raised for the use of the island; it is also exported to Guernsey an to England. In times of peace it has been carried to France.
>
> 'The quarries are inexhaustible; the cliffs for a long space, and a elevation of an hundred feet or more, consisting entirely of this ston in large masses apparently undisturbed by a single fissure. Shaft for columns of considerable length have been taken from the quarrie and were the demand sufficient to call for new openings, I have n doubt that columns of twenty feet and upwards might be raised.'

Might not this stone be advantageously employed for monumental purposes?

A Description of the Red Oxyd of Copper, the production of Cornwall, and of the Varieties in the form of its Crystal, with Observations on the Lodes which principally produced it; and on the Crystallization of the arseniated Iron. By William Phillips, M.G.S.—The situation, states, and accompaniments of the red oxyd of copper are here detailed with a degree of minuteness which must prove highly satisfactory to the geological reader, and instructive to the practical miner. Of the three *lodes*, or veins, in which it occurs, the *north* contains it very sparingly, accompanied by fluate of lime; the *Great Gossan* presents it in a considerable quantity, principally between the depth of 66 and 86 fathoms, often in well defined crystals, and sometimes intermingled with native copper: but the *Mutrell* includes its greatest repository; which occupies a space of ten fathoms in depth, and about six in length, 'being disposed in bunches, the largest and richest of which are about fifteen feet in length, by as many in depth.' At different depths, in the same lode, were found varieties of the arseniate of copper, and occasionally the cupreous arseniate of iron. The cubic arseniate of iron also occurs in the greatest quantity in the Mutrell lode. — Of this latter substance, Mr. Phillips has obtained some varieties in the form of the crystal, which have not been described by the Count de Bournon: but the particulars of their structure, and of the crystalline modifications of the red oxyd of copper, which seem to be recorded with great accuracy, require repeated references to the plates.

A Sketch of the natural History of the Cheshire Rock-Salt District. By Henry Holland, Esq. Honorary Member of the Geological Society. — To persons who are desirous of perusing this very able communication with the greatest advantage, we would recommend not only a careful inspection of the illustrative map, but a recurrence to Mr. Holland's Agricultural Survey of Cheshire; in which he enters, at some length, into the natural history of its strata of rock-salt, and offers some observations on the manufacture of refined salt from the brine-springs, to which these strata give rise. The beds of fossil salt in this district seem to be limited, with a few exceptions, to the vallies of the Weaver, and of its tributary streams. In the same tract of country, salt-springs frequently make their appearance, and sometimes contain between 25 and 26 per cent. of the pure muriate of soda; thus indicating a degree of strength superior to that which is manifested by those of Hungary, Germany, or France, and nearly approximating to the perfect saturation of the brine.

The rock-salt of Northwich, which was discovered about 140 years ago, *in searching* for coal, consists of two great strata or beds, lying nearly in a horizontal direction, l separated by several layers of indurated clay; which exhibit very uniform thickness of ten or eleven yards, are irregula penetrated by veins of the fossil salt, and contain gypsum, varying proportions, and under different appearances, but marine exuviæ, nor any organic remains:

> 'The thickness of the upper bed of salt at Northwich has b already stated to vary from twenty to thirty yards: that of the lo bed has never yet been ascertained in any one of the mines in this trict. The workings in this lower stratum are usually begun at depth of from twenty to twenty-five yards, and are carried down five or six yards, through what forms, as will afterwards be mention the purest portion of the bed. In one of the mines a shaft has b sunk to a level of fourteen yards still lower, without pressing throu the body of rock-salt. We have thus an ascertained thickness of t bed, of about forty yards, and no direct evidence that it may not tend to a considerably greater depth.'

The purity and the external form of the rock-salt vary cc siderably in different parts of the same stratum; and it is t finer portion of the lower bed which is at present worked in t Northwich mine. 'In some parts, where pillars six or eig yards square form the support of the mine, the appearance the cavity is singularly striking; and the brilliancy of the effe is greatly increased, if the mine be illuminated by candles fix to the side of the rock. The scene thus formed would alm appear to realize the magic palaces of the eastern poets.'—T general *sobriety* of the author's description will not permit us believe that he has here indulged in misplaced exaggeratio and though we have known persons who had visited these a other salt-mines express disappointment at the *shaded lustre* the scene, they may have stumbled on portions more con minated with clay, or may have neglected the requisite numl and disposition of the lights.

It is estimated that the average quantity of rock-salt extract from the Northwich mines amounts to fifty or sixty thousa tons; of which the greater part is exported to Ireland and t Baltic, and the remainder is employed in the manufacture white salt, by solution and subsequent evaporation.

With regard to the formation of these beds of rock-salt, M Holland embraces the common hypothesis of marine depositi and sudden evaporation; a doctrine which appears to be enco passed with many and serious difficulties.

Account of the Pitch-Lake of the Island of Trinidad. I Nicholas Nugent, M. D. Honorary Member of the Geologi Society.—Dr. Nugent has certainly favoured the public wi one of the most perspicuous and distinct accounts of this ce brated accumulation of bituminous matter; and his candid remarks forbid us not to hope that this mineral production may be more extensively employed than it hitherto has been, for the important uses of the dock-yard.

Memoir on the Laumonite. By M. Le Comte de Bournon, F.R. and L.S. &c. *Foreign Secretary of the Geological Society.* [Translated from the original French Manuscript.]—The mineral substance here described was formerly denominated *efflorescent zeolite*, in consequence of its undergoing disintegration, and finally falling into powder, on exposure to the air; and from the belief that it belonged to the species of *zeolite.* Having been found, however, to differ entirely from the latter, it has been named *Laumonite*, in honour of M. Gillet de *Laumont*, who discovered it about twenty-five years ago, in the lead-mine of Huelgoet, in Lower Brittany. The Count de Bournon, with his usual ability and discernment, has detailed its crystallographical, physical, chemical, and specific characters, and has added some ingenious observations on its crystalline forms, &c.; thus contributing additions and corrections to the prior notices of De Laumont and the Abbé Haüy. Since the date of its discovery, Laumonite has been also found in the island of Feroe; in prehnite, said to have been brought from China; in the cavities of an amygdaloid, with a very argillaceous and earthy base, from the Venetian states; and in zeolitic rocks at Portrush, in the county of Antrim, in Ireland, and from the neighbourhood of Paisley, in Scotland.

We cannot take leave of this valuable paper without submitting the ensuing paragraph to the consideration of the curious:

> 'I have said, (observes the author) under the head of specific characters, that the Laumonite had not exhibited to me any sensible difference with respect to its specific gravity, whether this was taken whilst this substance had experienced only a very slight change, or whether when it was much more considerably altered. This fact, which I did not expect, attributing, according to the opinion generally entertained, its disintegration or efflorescence to the loss of its water either of composition, and consequently combined with it, or of crystallization, and in that case simply interposed between its particles; this fact, I say, greatly surprised me. But is it true that in the Laumonite, as well as in all the salts which effloresce on exposure to the atmosphere, this phenomenon is to be attributed to the loss of water? As far as the Laumonite is concerned, it appears to me very probable that this destruction is in reality, as I have said, nothing more than the simple result of disintegration. That this is the case will appear from the changes which occur in this mineral, and principally from the greater or less regularity of the primitive form which many of the smallest fragments preserve, when this alteration has ever arrived at such a point that the substance divides of itself. If it is to be attributed to the loss of its water, this can only be the

direction; for the central nucleus is occasionally pure silex, surrounded by bands, which are more or less cretaceous, in proportion as they recede from the centre; and, on the other hand, the circumference is observed to be siliceous, and the centre a nodule of chalk.

Immediately on quitting the chalk-district, which extends 150 miles in a direct line from east to west, the observer finds a red sand-stone, having an argillo-ferruginous cement, but which does not assume an uniform and compact texture till near Exeter; being, in some places, in the state of coarse gravel, and, in others, in that of conglomerate, or pudding-stone. Besides the stone quarries and the mine of black oxyd of manganese, in the neighbourhood of Exeter, Dr. Berger adverts to the grauwacke strata, which dip north-west at an angle of about 70°.—In advancing towards Plymouth, by Chudleigh, &c. the red sand-stone is succeeded by a profusion of flint pebbles, scattered over the surface; then by a compact blue lime-stone; and, lastly, by slaty and compact grauwacke: the strata acquiring elevation in proportion as they proceed to the westward.

The low primitive mountain-chain of Cornwall stretches from E.N.E. to W.S.W., extending nearly 118 miles; having its central and highest part of granite, and the flanks, in many places, of grauwacke. The fine slaty variety of the latter, which Kirwan ranks with horn-stones, is termed *killas* by the Cornish miners. — Near Torr Point, are two beds of greenstone, one of which contains a considerable quantity of steatite, and the other varies very remarkably in its texture.—Over the extensive mountain-plain of Dartmoor forest, granite and grauwacke still appear to be the prevailing rocks. The former, near Step-aside, occurs in a state of decomposition, or kaolin, and affords excellent porcelain-earth for the Worcestershire potteries. Here also is found the *Schorl-rock*, a compound of schorl and quartz, but in which the first considerably predominates.

The serpentine district includes the promontory of the Lizard, and affords the *Soap-rock*, or tender steatite; which, when extracted from the serpentine, may be kneaded like dough, but, in consequence of exposure to the air, becomes friable. Like kaolin, it is used in the manufacture of porcelain.—We cannot afford to follow Dr. Berger in his judicious remarks on the Wernerian notions of primary and secondary serpentines; nor in those, equally interesting, which regard the shoots and veins of granite in grauwacke; a phænomenon of which some remarkable instances occur in Devonshire and Cornwall. We must likewise forbear from touching on the Doctor's general notices of the mining-fields of the latter county, because so much has already appeared on the same subject, in various publications: but we cannot dismiss this long paper without giving our cordial testimony to the care and ability by which it is characterized.

An Account of "The Sulphur," or "Souffriere" of the Island of Montserrat. By Nicholas Nugent, M.D., &c. — These sulphureous exhalations, which are very strong, issue from various fissures and crevices of a decomposed porphyritic rock. Though Dr. Nugent could perceive no indication of a crater, the intense heat which accompanies the discharge of these vapours may very probably be volcanic, because old craters are often filled up; or a certain degree of volcanic heat may be supposed to exist, without producing all the effects of a formal eruption.

Observations on the Wrekin, and on the Great Coal-field of Shropshire. By Arthur Aikin, Esq., M.G.S. — Under the term *Wrekin*, Mr. Aikin includes that line of hills of which it is the most conspicuous. The red sand-stone-rock of this district, which extends into other counties, consists principally of rather fine grains of quartz, with a few spangles of mica, cemented by clay and oxyd of iron, but possessing little cohesion. It rises at an angle of between ten and twelve degrees; and its southern extremity in Shropshire rests on highly elevated strata of grauwacke. The series of coal-formation, which commences immediately adjacent to the red sand-stone, occupies a length of about six miles, and two in its utmost breadth. It is composed of the usual strata, which are not fewer than 86 in number; of which the 31st and 33d are coarse-grained sand-stone, entirely penetrated by petroleum. 'These strata are interesting, as furnishing the supply of petroleum that issues from the *tar-springs* at Coalport. By certain geologists, this reservoir of petroleum has been supposed to be sublimed from the beds of coal that lie below; an hypothesis not easily reconcilable to present appearances, especially as it omits to explain how the petroleum in the upper of these beds could have passed through the interposed bed of clay so entirely as to leave no trace behind; it is also worthy of remark that the nearest coal is only six inches thick, and is separated from the above beds by a mass ninety-six feet in thickness, consisting of sand-stone and clay-strata, without any mixture of petroleum.' The other strata and beds of coal are duly particularized, but seem to present no unusual appearances.

At the south-eastern extremity of the district, two parallel ranges of lime-stone run nearly north-east and south-west; that which lies most easterly being indicated by a line of hills, rising to five or six hundred feet above the level of the Severn, and consisting of beds of lime-stone and sand-stone, rising to the north-west. 'This lime-stone is characterized by the madrepores which it contains, particularly the *catenaria*, or chain-coral; by the pentacrinite, by small ammonites, by a few bivalve shells, and especially by the natural joints of the strata being often lined by flesh-coloured tabular heavy spar. Detached lumps of galena are often found on the surface, and a few small veins of the same mineral have been traced in various parts, but chiefly near the southern extremity, where it comes in contact with the coal-formation.'

The average height of the western range scarcely exceeds three hundred feet above the bed of the Severn, forming an unbroken ridge, and containing multitudes of tubulites and other coralline remains, but, as far as the author could observe, no heavy spar. Its elevated portion is intimately connected with an unstratified green-stone trap, which forms two principal deposits, and exhibits several varieties. A regularly stratified bed of quartz-grit rises in a north-westerly direction, at an angle of 55°, where it rests on the Wrekin and Caer-Caradoc, but, in the intermediate space, at an angle of about 40°. It consists of quartz, in rounded grains, from the size of a pin's head to that of an egg. Beneath it is a very extensive bed of *clay-stone*, or *compact felspar*; for, in different places, it assumes the character of both. Under this clay-stone, an unstratified trap-formation, consisting chiefly of rocks of felspar and green-stone, constitutes the great mass of the Wrekin and the adjoining hills. When the horn-blend and felspar are intimately mixed in the green-stone, the rock usually becomes amygdaloidal.

'Of these amygdaloids one is of remarkable beauty, forming large masses on Caer-Caradoc, but which has not yet found a place in the works of systematic mineralogists. It consists of a dull earthy basis, formed by an intimate mixture of dark bluish green hornblende, with flesh-red felspar, inclosing globular concretions of greenish-yellow radiated glassy actynolite, a quarter of an inch or more in diameter; smaller connections of quartz, intimately mixed with actynolite, and therefore nearly in the state of prasium, together with concretions and irregular veins of foliated white calcareous spar.

'The trap-formation itself does not seem to correspond with any of those described by mineralogical writers; and its essential characters are, its unconformableness with the transition-slate on which it rests, — the great abundance of clay-stone, both massive and vesicular, which it contains, — and the presence of actynolitic amygdaloid.'

A Chemical Account of an Aluminous Chalybeate Spring in the Isle of Wight. By Alexander Marcet, M.D. F.R.S. M.G.S., &c.

&c.—It appears, from Dr. Marcet's numerous observations and experiments, that the mean specific gravity of this water is 1007,5, and that each pint of it contains, of carbonic acid gas, three-tenths of a cubic inch,

sulphate of iron	41,4
——— alumine	31,6
——— lime	10,1
——— magnesia	3,6
——— soda	16
Muriate of soda	4
and silica	0,7
	107,4

Hence, in point of strength, this water is reckoned superior to any analogous mineral-spring in Great Britain, those of Hartfell and Horley not excepted; 'and it is probable that in many instances it will be found expedient to drink the water in a diluted state; whilst in others, when it may be desirable to take in a small compass large doses of these saline substances it will be preferred in its native undiminished strength.'

A Sketch of the Geology of some Parts of Hampshire and Dorsetshire. By J.F. Berger, M.D., &c.—Independently of the chalk-hills, which occupy a considerable portion of the district in question, various other strata or beds occur, of which the nature and general arrangement constitute the principal object of this memoir. In travelling from London to Southampton by Bagshot, &c., flint-gravel, either in loose sand or in loam may be traced to New Alresford, a distance of 57 miles; where the chalk is found *in situ*, but, at five or six miles S.S.W. from Winchester, gives place to the flint in loam. The flint pebbles are rounded; much smaller than those that are imbedded in the chalk; and they exhibit a semi-transparency approaching to that of amber. Another formation, which is seen in the Isle of Wight, is that of quartzose loose sand, including coarse hard ferruginous sand-stone, potter's clay, and a coaly bituminous matter, which burns with a weak flame and emits a smell somewhat analogous to that of Bovey coal. A marl-rock, varying in texture and colour, occupies a considerable extent along the coast.—The cliffs of the south-western and southern coast of the Isle of Wight are composed of a coarse-grained sand-stone, disposed in strata of several yards in thickness, which alternate with coarse shelly lime-stone, and thin layers of chert. In many instances, Dr. Berger has observed the passage of the sand-stone into chert, and of the latter into a beautiful transparent chalcedony. Nearly in the same situation, and also in the islands of Portland and Pureck, is found the coarse shelly lime-stone, which the author as reason to believe is by no means so rare as it was at first apposed to be. The Doctor's remarks on this mineral subtance are highly deserving of perusal: but we must refrain rom transcribing them.—A bed of oviform lime-stone, or olite, may be observed in the quarry of Wind Spit, in Purleck; and another, still more extensive, to the north-west of he Isle of Portland.—The Kimeridge coal lies between strata of slate-clay, which gradually pass into bituminous shale.—Such are little more than the general titles of Dr. Berger's observations.

Notice respecting the Geological Structure of the Vicinity of Dublin; with an Account of some rare Minerals found in Ireland. By William Fitton, M.D.—The district here particularized might, till lately, have been regarded as *virgin soil* in the eyes of the geologist; and the present memoranda, which seem to have originated with the late Rev. Walter Stephens, are recommended both by their novelty and their importance: since, besides pointing out the boundaries of the lime-stone and granite tracts, they make us acquainted with the occurrence of some rare and valuable mineral substances which were not formerly supposed to exist in Ireland. Among these we remark tin-stone, gold, the grey ore of manganese, earthy black cobalt ore, Vesuvian, grenatite, beryl, Andalusite, indurated talc, hollow spar, pitch-stone, granular sulphate of barytes, and barellite.

On the Mineralogy of the Malvern Hills. By Leonard Horner, Esq., Sec. Geol. Soc.—The Malvern hills consist of an uninterrupted chain, about nine miles in length, extending nearly in a straight line from north to south; their greatest breadth not exceeding two miles, and the elevation of the *Herefordshire Beacon*, the highest of the range, being 1444 feet above the level of the sea. Felspar, horn-blend, quartz, and mica, form various compound rocks in the chain: but these ingredients are blended in very different proportions, and in few instances with such minuteness as to give the internal structure a homogeneous appearance. The vegetation, however, which covers these hills, and the disintegrated state of those masses of rock which are laid open by quarrying, present very serious difficulties in the way of investigation. The stratified rocks, which occupy the country to the westward, rise, in some places, to a considerable height, on the side of the range. In various parts of the chain, Mr. Horner met with *epidote* (*pistazite* of Werner), which, till lately, was believed to be a rare fossil.—We cannot enter into the more particular details with which this intelligent observer has favoured the public.

Notice accompanying a Section of Heligoland, drawn up from the Communications of Lieutenants Dickinson and M'Culloch, of the Royal Engineers. By John M'Culloch, M. D., &c.—According to report, currently received among the inhabitants, this island has, by encroachments of the sea, been reduced within the last century from eleven miles in length to its present dimension of one mile. It seems to consist of strata of indurated clay, alternating with beds of grey lime-stone, with traces of copper-ore dispersed through them. — 'Belemnites, and other fossil remains, both calcareous and flinty, are also found on the shore; and the clay strata often contain considerable quantities of pyrites, together with carbonized and pyritaceous wood.'

Observations on some of the Strata in the Neighbourhood of London, and on the Fossil Remains contained in them. By James Parkinson, Esq., M.G.S.—This is a very valuable communication, which strongly tends to confirm several important positions relative to the history of organized remains, imbedded in the earth; and it forms an interesting supplement to the author's very respectable volumes on the same subject. His present statements, however, are not easily reducible to such concise form as to suit our legitimate bounds; and we must therefore, though reluctantly, refer our readers to the original paper.

Memoir on Bardiglione or Sulphate of Lime, containing a Sketc of a Theory of the true Nature of Plaster, as well as of its Properties; in order to determine the Differences that exist between and Bardiglione. By the Count de Bournon, F. R. S., &c. [Translated from the original French manuscript.] —We have no where met with a more detailed and accurate account of this modification of sulphate of lime, than the present paper affords. Though composed of the same principles with *plaster*, it manifestly differs from the latter in some respects; because gypsum, when changed to the state of plaster by calcination, rapidly absorbs water, and by that absorption acquires consistency: whereas Bardiglione, either before or after calcination, has not any action whatever on water, and, if reduced to powder before it is mixed with that fluid, its particles still retain their state of division. — 'As this difference cannot arise from the nature of the principles entering into combination, or from the manner in which they are proportioned to each other, it must necessarily arise from the mode of arrangement of the constituent molecules which form the integrant molecules.' The Count endeavours, and with his usual acuteness and ingenuity, to support this conclusion; and we should gladly concur in his sentiments, were we perfectly satisfied with regard to the solidity of the French doctrine relative to constituent and integrant molecules, and if we firmly believed in the infallibility of chemical analysis.

From the Count's observations, it moreover results that this mineral species is not confined to secondary strata, but that it occurs in some veins in primitive rocks. The idea of its transition into gypsum, by the intervention of water, which has introduced itself into the interior of the substance, as alleged by the Abbé Haüy, is very ably, and (we think) successfully combated. The Count is likewise inclined to dissent from the Abbé with respect to the determination of the primitive crystal of Bardiglione.

Notice respecting Native Concrete Boracic Acid. By Smithson Tennant, Esq., F.R.S. &c.—The purport of this notice is to apprize the public that the mineral substance to which it refers has been actually found in the Lipari islands; and to suggest its probable occurrence in volcanic districts.

Sketch of the Geology of Madeira. By the Hon. Henry Grey Bennett, *in a Letter to G. B. Greenough, Esq., F.R.S., President of the Geol. Soc.*—Since the geology of Madeira has not hitherto formed an object of particular investigation, Mr. Bennett's hints may serve as the basis of future inquiries. Although this gentleman encountered no depositions of sulphur, the frequency of beds and currents of lava, and the occurrence of pumice, permit us not to doubt that, at some period, this island must have been the theatre of volcanic eruptions. Mr. B. thus concludes his brief communication:

> 'To my mind, the most interesting geological facts are, 1st, The intersection of the lava by dykes at right angles with the strata. 2dly, The rapid dips the strata make, particularly the overlaying of that of the *Brazen Head*, to the eastward of Funchal, where the blue, grey, and red lavas are rolled up in one mass, and lie in a position as if they had all slipped together from an upper stratum. 3dly, The columnar form of the lava itself reposing on, and being covered by, beds of scoriæ, ashes, and pumice, which affords a strong argument for the volcanic origin of the columns themselves; and, 4thly, The veins of carbonate of lime and zeolite, which are not found here in solitary pieces as in the vicinity of Ætna and Vesuvius, but are *amid* the lavas and *in* the strata of pumice and tufa, and are diffused on the lava itself, and occasionally crystallized in its cavities.'

Notice respecting the Decomposition of Sulphate of Iron by Animal Matter. By W. H. Pepys, Esq., F.R.S., *Treasurer of the Geological Society.*—With a view to throw some light on the penetration of organic remains by pyrites, Mr. Pepys records the following fact:

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'I was engaged a few years ago in a course of experiment hydrogen gas, which was procured in the usual method, by the lution of iron tinnings in diluted sulphuric acid. The sulphate i iron hence resulting, to the amount of some quarts, was poured a large earthen pitcher, and remained undisturbed and unnoticed about a twelvemonth. At the end of this time, the vessel bei wanted, I was about to throw away the liquor, when my attenti was excited by an oily appearance on its surface, together with yellowish powder, and a quantity of small hairs.

'The powder, on examination, proved to be sulphur; and o pouring off carefully the supernatant liquor, there was discovered a the bottom of the vessel a sediment consisting of the bones of several mice, of small grains of pyrites, of sulphur, of crystallized green sulphate of iron, and of black muddy oxyd of iron.

'These appearances may with much probability be attributed to the mutual action of the animal matter and the sulphate of iron, by which a portion of the metallic salt seems to have been entirely deoxygenated.'

From these *first fruits* of the labours of the Geological Society, we are warranted to draw the most flattering auspices with respect to its future progress and utility; and we cannot, for a moment, listen to the insidious whispers, which would represent its existence and establishment as giving umbrage to the patrons of another associated body, whose views embrace the ample field of the three kingdoms of Nature, and an account of whose Transactions we have repeatedly had the pleasure of laying before the public. The two institutions are congenial, but not incompatible; and much important benefit may be derived from the united inquiries of individuals, directed to exclusive departments of the History of Nature.

Art. III. *Historical Memoirs and Anecdotes of the Court of France*, during the Favor of Madame de Pompadour; from original Papers preserved in the Port-Folio of Madame la Marèchale D'***. By J. Soulavie, the Elder, Author of the Historical Memoirs of the Reign of Louis the Sixteenth. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 428. 10s. Boards. Lindsell, and Longman and Co. 1811.

The lives of sovereigns well deserve a close inspection, not merely from being connected with the events of civil history, but as studies of human nature. Superior from station to the controul of others, and free from any anxious dread of public opinion, they are little coerced by the artificial restraints of subordination and society. They therefore usually exhibit the natural man in naked sincerity, and are found progressively to lay aside the hypocrisies of polish and the toil of courtesy. All the advantages which a dramatic artist can derive from mingling among the vulgar and the young, in order to observe undisguised the instinctive moral propensities, he may also derive from contemplating the biographies of kings. So many are interested in penetrating their characters, that they are known to the core; and though this knowlege, while they live, may frequently be confined to the bystanders, it is gradually diffused into a wider circle, and at last becomes the property of history.

The character of Louis XV. had no marked peculiarity. He had a fine person, a regular understanding, and a mild temper. Ignorant, because he had been suffered to be idle, and without any habitual amusement, because he had never been compelled to habitual employment, he became the victim of a tedium bordering on hypochondriasis. His *ennui* amounted to *annoy*. With the intellect of academies obedient to his whisper, and with the revenues of a nation at his finger-ends, he was still *unamusable*; he could do as he liked, but he knew not what to do with himself. Crebillon paints him in the Sultan of his novels, who listens to the voice of wit, presides at the banquet of luxury, and receives the caress of beauty, with the yawn of indifference and satiety.

At fifteen years of age, Louis married the Polish Princess Mary Leczinsky, daughter of the dethroned King Stanislaus. He served a seven years' apprenticeship to conjugal fidelity, and was rewarded by a numerous issue for his juvenile constancy. The Queen, however, was at least seven years older than the King; her beauty suffered by her repeated lyings-in; and at the age of thirty she found herself avowedly superseded in the King's affection by women of a more enticing form. Madame de Mailly, and her sisters, were successively favourites of the monarch: but Madame d'Etioles, afterward Marchioness of Pompadour, had alone the power to *fix* the royal attentions. She was of ordinary birth, a Mademoiselle Poisson, but had been drawn by her early beauty and fascinating accomplishments into high circles; where a wealthy nobleman, Monsieur le Normant d'Etioles, saw, admired, and married her. His love for her was stronger than her attachment to him. She threw herself repeatedly in the King's way, at hunting-parties, and elsewhere; her wiles succeeded: yet, even after she had forsaken her home to inhabit a villa belonging to the monarch, her husband was loud in his regret, and avowedly wished for a re-union. A letter of exile compelled him to retire to Avignon, where his grief evaporated; and he at length determined to accept a pension of indemnity.

The History of the Court of France during the favor of Madame de Pompadour, says M. Soulavie in his Epistle Dedi-

During the administration of Cardinal Fleury, Louis XV. had prevented the election, as academician, of the author of *Lettres Persannes*: but, after the ascendancy of Madame de Pompadour, when Montesquieu fell ill, the King sent to inquire concerning his health. She brought Royal intolerance thus to apologize for its hostility to genius.

To Quesnay, also, the founder of the physiocratic sect, which maintained that the rent of fixed property is the only real source of revenue and the only proper object of taxation, Madame de P. always shewed a marked friendship, and bequeathed by will a considerable annuity.

Diderot, D'Alembert, and the Encyclopedists, had been ordered by the police to desist from printing their Encyclopedie at Paris, in consequence of the objections made by the Archbishop to the article *Ame* in the first volume; and they were obliged to treat for transferring their contract to Geneva. The covert interference of Madame de Pompadour, however, obtained a practical connivance at the continuation of the undertaking; and though Geneva was adopted for the epigraph of the title-page, the printing went on at Paris.

When the interests of France required that the King should accompany the armies into Flanders, Madame de P. chose to follow the camp, and forced the indolence of the monarch to attend in her train. Having perceived that Generals of rank over-ruled officers of merit, she induced the King to call in the critical aid of the Maréchal de Saxe, and to supersede the titled commanders, previously to the battle of Fontenoy.

The Queen, if she dissembled her jealousy, could not but feel mortification; and she sought comfort, or condolence, in a morose devotion, with which she had also inspired her son. Surrounded by ecclesiastics, especially of the Jesuitic class, the Dauphin and his mother lived with little pomp, and with an exemplary morality which attached to them the purer part of the community.—M. Soulavie thus depicts this pious court:

> 'The virtuous and regular life led by the Dauphin and his wife, was a bitter and striking reflection on the life of the King, who lived in a state of separation from his wife.
>
> 'The Queen was no longer either young, or handsome; she had, nevertheless, some remaining attractions, and a great deal of personal merit.
>
> 'The Dauphin's second wife was a Saxon by birth; and brought with her, into France, a deep and ambitious character capable of very great undertakings. She had received a more studied and more diversified education, than that of the Princesses. She was learned, without any of those singularities which learning generally gives a woman. She lived in a very retired manner with her husband,

shewing herself very little at a Court where the Favorite wi
reign as Sovereign.

‘ The King's daughters shewed a marked attachment t
mother and their brother ; they were, like them, in opposition
party of Madame de Pompadour ; they felt aukward at the atte
which the regard they bore to their father, obliged them t
to Madame de Pompadour, and which were very painful to
and they were distressed to see the influence she possessed, a
insignificance in which the Dauphin of France was obliged t
his life. There was no expression of contempt, or severity th
party did not apply to the Favorite, in their private meetings ;
they reflected that they could not dispose of a single situation,
ployment, without procuring them through the channel, or wi
consent of Madame de Pompadour.

‘ The Favorite kept up that repugnance in the King,
seemed to be natural to him, to ceding any part of his author
his son ; and contemplating, in the reign of this Prince, the te
her influence, and, perhaps, of her liberty, the Dauphin of I
was, in her eyes, a personage whose tastes, inclinations, prin
and attachments, were all to be studied, only for the pleasure
cretly thwarting and opposing them. It was this intriguin
wicked woman, who succeeded, but too well, in fixing upo
Prince, the character, which he has ever since had, of a m
mind, and of having those ridiculous partialities for the minut
religion, which are so totally unbecoming, and so little consisten
his illustrious birth.

‘ Exclusive of the Royal Family, there were the Duke de Lu
his wife, Monsieur de Nicolay, Bishop of Verdun, and the Ca
de Luynes, who were distinguished characters in the party att
to the Queen and the Dauphin ; as was also Madame de Mar
professed devotee, whom circumstances did not permit to be le
when an establishment was formed, for the education of the ch
of the Dauphin.'

This sobriety or puritanism of demeanor was less in u
with the spirit of the French courtiers, than the gallantr
libertinism of the visitors of Madame de Pompadour ; bu
Dauphin could not bear to see the mistress of his fath
possession of greater public homage than the Queen ; an
impatience was fostered by the high-church party, who c
the sacraments to be refused to Madame de P., as to an
ed adulteress. The moral animosities of the virtuous
also aroused successfully against her from the pulpit.

Some projects for subjecting noble property to a lar
were at this time entertained by Abbé Terray, the minis
finance ; and these plans enkindled a hostile zeal amon
aristocracy, who attributed the wants of the state to th
penditure of the favourite mistress. The parliaments,
supported by the church and the nobility, grew loud in
dissatisfaction. The King, in August 1756, held a *lit de j*

for the purpose of giving the force of law, by a presumed consent of the States General, to edicts which the local parliaments had refused to register. They next protested against this national registration.

The building and endowment of the *Ecole Militaire*, which at any other period would have been a topic of praise and admiration at Paris, was numbered among the lavish prodigalities of the court; and while its necessities were compelling frugality, and it was selling the profitable or distinguished offices in order to pay those which were indispensable, it was most obnoxious for its extravagance and profusion. About the close of the year 1756, the gale of unpopularity blew alarmingly strong. Violent language prevailed at all tables, and was repeated with exaggerations: but every host and every guest chose to have the liberal memory of Tacitus's old lady; they were too deaf to recollect what was said.

On the 4th of January 1757, after dinner, as Louis, accompanied by the Royal family, was walking down the stair-case at Versailles, a valet, with his hat on, approached, drew a knife, and stabbed at the King's right side. "Do you not know the King?" said the Dauphin, seeing that the man was covered. The guards seized him; and by this time it was perceived that the King bled, and that an attempt had been made at assassination. Inquiry ascertained that the assassin's name was Damiens, that he had been educated at a college of the Jesuits, and that he had lived as secretary, or valet, with many masters, and latterly with a disaffected parliamentary barrister. He was committed to prison, and the examination devolved in the first instance on a privy council, at which the Dauphin presided; and next on the *Prevoté*, or local magistracy, of Versailles. The interrogatories were subsequently printed, and discussed in the high Court of Justice: but, from the great praise bestowed on certain depositions as having been *skilfully* drawn up, it is evident that much was purposely concealed, and that the public was not allowed to attain the most natural inference. — The King's wound bled abundantly: rumor magnified his danger; pity reinforced the ostentatious sensibilities of loyalty; and a people, who were yesterday provoking, were to day execrating regicide. The Archbishop of Paris ordered *neuvaines*, or nine days of public prayer for the King's safety, and crowds thronged to the mass for the sake of seeing the *bulletin* of his health which was then shewn. The theatres meanwhile were shut. —The affectionate solicitude of Madame de Pompadour, which alone was indubitable, restored her to popularity: — the surgeons gave a favourable report: — addresses of congratulation poured in from all quarters; and the most refractory provincial

parliaments

parliaments and states vied with each other in expressions of devotion and zeal.

A high court of justice had been convened for the trial of the criminal: it included about sixty voters; only the heads of noble families voted, although subordinate branches were allowed to be present at the sittings. The Prince of Conti was distinguished by a zeal for prolonging and extending into remote quarters the investigations which were begun at Versailles. A Jansenist confessor was ordered to attend Damiens; which was indirectly favouring the suspicion that the Jesuits had instigated the attempt. The public opinion of this court was that Damiens had no accomplice nor specific instigator, but that he acted *fanatically*, as a madman too strongly impressed by the licentious conversations of the discontented. The Duke of Aiguillon, as the enemy of sedition, accused the parliamentary zealots of having fanaticized the assassin; and the Duke of Choiseul, as the enemy of the high-church party, accused the Jesuits. This last became the prevailing cry, and led to the suppression of that order.

M. Soulavie had no occasion to adhere to the prudent reserve, which, at the time of this incident, was expedient in the High Court of Justice. He might have newly dissected the documents; and he might probably have obtained, among aged noblemen, confidential communications respecting the original examinations before the Privy Council. The royal mind was supposed to have imbibed the most painful of suspicions.—When the Dauphin came to the bed-side of his Majesty, the day after the assassination, and inquired whether he suffered much pain; the King answered: "I should suffer more, my son, if you were in my condition."—The Archbishop of Paris, named Beaumont, who was no favourite at court because he had occasioned the sacraments to be refused to Madame de Pompadour on the ground of her living in open adultery, but who in that act shewed himself a man of courage, integrity, and principle, was required to publish a *mandatory letter*, or charge to his clergy, concerning the thanksgiving for the King's preservation; and this letter he closed with the assertion, "that the late attempt on the King's life was the offspring of a treason premeditatedly planned in his own palace."—The Duke of Choiseul, in the speech made before the High Court of Justice, not contented with imputing to the Jesuits this plot, added that it might be traced to Jesuits of Silesia; in which assertion lurked a personal allusion to some priest who was in favour with the Queen and the Dauphin.—Not long afterward, the Dauphin died; and it was reported, says M. Soulavie, (p.383.) that the Duke of Choiseul, by the King's order, had caused him to be poisoned. This accusation is no doubt unfounded: but it strongly marks a general opinion that the King imputed to his own family the attack against his person.

Madame de Pompadour died of a decline not long before the Dauphin. Her beauty had passed away, but not her fascination. One of her latter amusements was the institution of a manufactory of porcelain, which still flourishes at Sevres, and supplies Europe with its finest specimens. The King often accompanied her to the workshop, and she assisted the painters in embellishing their vases. Indeed, Madame de Pompadour excelled as an artist; and many copper-plates exist, drawn and engraven by herself, which celebrate the principal epochs of the King's reign. She also engraved on gems with singular perfection, and executed a flattering likeness of the Dauphin and Dauphiness on agate, which is still admired among the cameos of the museum. — After her death, a collection of her letters was published. They may have been retouched by the editor, and garbled: but they display a grace and vivacity which assimilate them to those of Lady Mary Wortley Montagu.

The interior government of those ministers who were patronized by Madame de Pompadour was uniformly favourable to the liberties of France, and to the interests of the people. They took authority away from the church, and they added authority to the parliaments. They endeavoured to prepare an equal land-tax, and listened with complacence to most of the projects which have been since considered as the beauties of the revolution. They tolerated a freedom of the press hitherto unknown in their country, and were willing to obey intellect still faster than public opinion would allow. Their exterior policy, in separating from Prussia to co-operate with Austria, is not so defensible. Their peace of 1763 was mean: but they were reproved for it by Madame de Pompadour's patriotism.

Having lost this fascinating mistress, the King became attached to a contemptible woman named Du Barri, and sank himself into contempt from the vulgar character of his pleasures. Indeed, the good features of his reign began and ended with his love for Madame de Pompadour. Conjugal fidelity is seldom long the virtue of princes: married by pedigree and policy, they neither give nor find a heart; and it is fortunate when their affections stray into the lap of *accomplished* beauty.

In adverting now to the merits of the work before us, we have to observe that it is but a slovenly compilation; it renders inadequate justice to the heroine; and it transcribes with little criticism opinions which are often contradictory, and passages from memoirs of secondary authority. The arrangement of the materials is confused, anachronic, hasty, and incoherent; and low anecdote is preferred to those facts which have produced important consequences. Suetonius is imitated, not Tacitus.—An appendix of documents, including the will of Madame de Pompadour, a memorial of the Economists, and a note on the list of church-preferments, is attached; which rather increases the bulk than the value of the publication.

The translation is executed with orderly attention, not with distinguished precision. Corrective annotations ought to have been supplied in those places in which inconsistent opinions are proclaimed, or hasty misrepresentations are adopted.

Too much of the tittle-tattle of scandal is interspersed in this book, to allow very nice ladies to inspect it: but the class of women who aspire to govern men, through their empire over the sensual inclinations, will derive from it many hints of practical importance. Pompadours are to be found in all courts. They are perhaps the most independent class of society, and have least to gain or to lose, personally, by choosing their sect or opinion on other than public-spirited grounds. If they make inroads on the domestic felicity of the great, and on the influence which should be monopolized by virtue, they can best atone to society for their usurped sway by scattering promotion on talent, and smoothing the path of reformation.

It is stated in the title-page that this publication is a second edition; we have not seen an earlier: but the denomination is perhaps a mere transcript from the French original. The author has more then once appeared before our tribunal: his books generally aim at popular accommodation; and, if they be made with the scissars more than with the pen, they have the merit of rifling other works which are here unknown, and of compendiously collecting materials that amuse.

Art. IV. M. de Montgaillard *on the Situation of Great Britain in* 1811, translated.

[*Article concluded from our last Number, p.* 90.]

At the close of our former article on this work, we gave some examples of the author's extravagant flattery on Bonaparte; and indeed he carries his adulation so far that in his opinion, every thing must be practicable for such a mighty sovereign. The creation of a fleet that shall be able to contend with ours, and even to wrest from us the sovereignty of the sea, appears to M. de Montgaillard to be a matter of no great difficulty:

'A nation (says he) which is powerful by land will always be powerful by sea, whenever she possesses a long line of coast, and when those coasts and harbours are so situated as to promote a great system of navigation. The time of Ministerial faults and errors has happily passed away in France; and this Empire has every thing to hope for: it need no longer fear that the Administration will neglect the advantages which nature has bestowed on it, and which victory has secured to it for ever!

'M. de Montesquieu, who, when in the wrong, commits only great errors, says in his sublime work "*On the Grandeur and Decline of the Romans,*" that a fleet is the only thing which power and money cannot immediately create: he also says, that it would require the whole life of a great Prince to form a fleet capable of appearing before a nation which already possesses the empire of the seas. These two opinions are fundamentally false: the reign of Louis XIV. and even that of Louis XVI. have furnished proofs of the contrary.'—

'The opinion declared by M. Montesquieu might *appear* to be well founded, sixty years ago, under the reign of kings of the third dynasty; but such an opinion would be absurd at the present day.—Providence did not allow M. de Montesquieu to guess at HIM who was destined to create the French Empire, and to make it the first in the universe! The grand error of the English — that which is the cause of all the political blunders of their Government, and which perpetuates its blindness, is, that they can neither make allowance for the times, nor for the greatness of the French Empire. The Emperor Napoleon is not a mere King of France; he is the invincible child of Victory, and with his power has begun the real race of the Cæsars; *that which will never end.*'—

'The French Empire contains within itself, and possesses on its maritime frontiers and those of its natural allies, all the elements of a great naval power, and the richest means of navigation to which the ambition of a great State could aspire. Twelve hundred leagues of coast, the finest ports and safest harbours in Europe, military stations of the first order, docks in every direction, from the Baltic to the Dardanelles, military arsenals fit for the most extensive operations, naval stores and ammunition in abundance, navigable rivers which extend from north to south, from east to west, an excellent race of seamen in Holland, on the shores of the Baltic, in the Gulph of Gascony, in Britanny, in Provence, on the coasts of the Adriatic, and on all the European shores of the Mediterranean.'—

'The docks of Amsterdam and Antwerp, of Brest, Rochefort and Toulon, of Ferrol, Lisbon, Cadiz, Carthagena, Genoa, Naples, Venice, Porto-Rico, &c. will in a *few months* be filled with ships, at the voice of the Emperor of the French. The squadrons which will issue from those ports will, by covering all the open seas of Europe, protect all people, and soon display their flags in the seas of America and India. *On the day when the French flag shall appear in India, and join the Mahrattas, the British power will be destroyed!*'—

'The Emperor Napoleon has declared, that the French Empire must have a fleet: *he wills* that "it shall reconquer at once the rights of nations, *the liberty of the seas*, and a general peace." Who shall

dare

dare to doubt of a success which is guaranteed by genius, po
riches ?

‘ The Emperor Napoleon is lord of an empire, the reso
which are infinitely superior to those which could be obta
Louis XIV. : he has raised his subjects even to the height of
glory : he has changed the face of the political world, and
Europe with his trophies. Is it difficult for a monarch
created his age and his people, to create a fleet ?’

The boasts and exaggerations of this political para
not likely to obtain much faith among our countrymen :
unfortunately happens that the notion, which he affects
fuse respecting the maritime resources of France, is ve
ously entertained by a majority among ourselves, and con
our great terror at the idea of a state of peace. A few
us, however, make sufficient distinctions between the b
of ships and the formation of seamen : but many are
take up the idea that because the French have forests,
ters, and landsmen, in abundance, they will, in the int
peace, strain every nerve, and with success, in the creati
navy. Such fears would be greatly lessened if they wou
sider that Bonaparte's means of obtaining seamen ar
smaller than an inspection of the map appears at first
indicate. The whole extent of coast in the Mediter
whether French or Italian, should be kept almost out
question ; the navigation of that sea being so easy, a
means to form seamen fitted to contend with th
the ocean. A similar remark applies, with some quali
to the coasting-trade along the west of France ; so t
must come as far north as Brest before we enter on the
nursery of the enemy's marine. Hence to Dunkirk
favourable to M. de Montgaillard's argument and his
schemes : but, when we proceed farther, we arri
country famed indeed for able navigators, but not less
especially of late years, for hatred to the French. The i
ants may be draughted into Bonaparte's vessels, but the
little to be trusted on board of ship as the Italians at
or the Piedmontese in St. Domingo. The war in Sp
taught France how little dependence is to be placed on
ling combatants ; and that danger which is great on
not likely to be lessened at sea.— If we carry our vie
more remote period, and calculate whether in the co
years England or France bids fair to multiply seamen
more rapid ratio, we shall find the balance of pro
altogether on our side. France trades with the rest
world in a great degree,—we may say, chiefly,—by inla
munication, and by the Mediterranean ; and her co

may thus be much extended without a correspondent augmentation, as has been shewn in a very able pamphlet*, of her maritime means. As Great Britain, on the other hand, trades with all the world by sea, the whole extension of commerce consequent on a state of peace is thrown into the scale of her naval preponderance.—The contrast in the manner of conducting the home-trade of the two countries is equally remarkable. Great Britain, being an island of which the length much exceeds the breadth, conveys her bulky commodities from one part of her territory to another by water, and will find her coasting-navy progressively increase with the diffusion of population and industry along her shores. France, on the contrary, having the sea on one side only, and a territory nearly as wide as it is long, will carry on an augmented as she now does a limited commerce, by means of roads and inland canals. Such is the natural course of things: but it may be said by the advocates for war that Bonaparte puts all calculation at defiance, and will create a navy, under whatever obstacles, by dint of terror and compulsion. So also has he wished to conquer Spain by dint of terror and compulsion; yet we find him not more decisively advanced in his fourth campaign than in his first. He has there brought into action the whole energy of his empire, and made a complete experiment of what force can accomplish; the result of which, even if he obtained military possession of the country, would be to add an oppressive burden to France. Any experiments made by him in naval armaments,—his Boulogne flotilla, his grand West India expedition ending in the battle of Trafalgar, or his minor expedition to St. Domingo ending in the action of February 1806,—partake in a great degree of the precipitate and head-strong character of his Spanish warfare, and afford a remarkable proof that maritime operations are not his *forte*.

Of the great variety of topics discussed by M. de Montgaillard, one of those in which he appears to us least in error respects the vast extent of our taxation:

'The taxes, the public debt, and the various wants of the British Government, require annually from each subject, the sacrifice of *two-fifths* of his whole income. In fact, from every guinea which an Englishman obtains, no matter by what means, from 8s. to 8s. 6d. goes to the demands of the State, through the numerous taxes which press upon the produce of industry and the soil. Nay, as late as the administration of M. Neckar, it was generally *admitted* by the writers of both nations, that when an individual in France paid twenty sous in taxes, in England he paid four francs. The British Ministers prided themselves on this pretended riches of the people of t United Kingdom; and they drew the inference, that each Briti subject possessed, by his industry, an income of 14l. sterling; whi each subject of France had no more than four pounds per annum.'—

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* Mill's Commerce Defended, 2d Edition, p. 140.

'In 1688, the national revenue did not exceed £4,900,000.— In 1714, it had increased to £6,000,000.—In 1773, it w £10,400,000.—In 1775, it had advanced to nearly £12,000,000.— In 1786, the produce of all the taxes, imposts, export and impo duties, &c. to the number of 217, produced £14,600,000. I 1804, the total amount of the taxes and imposts, or duties, was state by the Ministers to be £32,100,000. In 1806, the national reven arising from the permanent taxes, the anticipated surplus of tho taxes, the lottery, the duties on malt, and the *war-taxes*, was state at the sum of £57,000,000. The war-taxes were taken, in the ca culation, at between £16,000,000. and £17,000,000.

'In 1809, the Ministers asserted that the national revenue, or th produce of all the taxes, might be estimated at £65,000,000. I this calculation are comprised the permanent taxes, at £41,000,000 and the war-taxes from £23,000,000. to £24,000,000.

'To complete the demands for the public service, and supply a the expenditures of the State, in 1804, the Ministers stated tha £58,000,000. were necessary. In 1806, they demanded the sum o £72,000,000; and in 1809, they required £75,000,000.

'Thus, in the space of less than forty years, the expenses of th State, or the total amount of the public wants, has increased fro the sum of £12,600,000, which was all that was necessary in 177 to that of £75,000,000, which was requisite in 1809!

'In the space of sixty-four years, or from 1748 to 1809, the taxe and duties have increased in Britain from the sum of £7,400,00 to that of £65,000,000; and in the course of forty-two years, o from 1768 to 1810, the National Debt has risen in England fro £153,000,000, to between 650 and £660,000,000!'

The author's picture of our mercantile disappointments wit Spanish America, though exaggerated, has unfortunately to much foundation:

'The events which have thrown open South America to the Britis flag, have deceived the avarice of the merchants, and imposed on th prudence of the Government. All the traders of the great manufacturing towns have made great speculations: they have surfeite South America with their manufactured produce; the Spanish an Portuguese markets in the New World have been overloaded in suc a degree as to present an extraordinary glut; these countries, th population of which is so thin, relatively to their extent; whos wants are limited, and always known, besides being restrained i many respects by climate, have used only a very small proportion o the articles, which have been imported: the unsold goods consequently remain in the stores; they have been subjected to a great depreciation in price, while the merchants who have sent them out have found themselves, as might readily be supposed, unable to sustain their credit in the metropolis; many great failures have thereb taken place amongst the commercial, and the banking-houses of the United Kingdom; the merchants have been unable to pay the manufacturers, and *they* have been obliged to fail in their turn, or to dismiss a part, or the whole of their work-people, according to the better or worse state of their resources; thus their business has been reduced by one-half; thousands of artisans have been thrown out of bread; and the prices of manufactured goods have fallen three-fifths; in short, all classes of the people have been exposed to failures or bankruptcies of greater or less extent; gold and silver have daily become more scarce, and Bank-notes have experienced a depreciation hitherto unknown in England.'

Our animadversions on M. de Montgaillard have hitherto been chiefly pointed at wilful misrepresentations: but we may find likewise much room for criticism on faults which can scarcely proceed from any source but ignorance. We have heard much of the superiority of northern husbandry, but this Frenchman is so unmerciful in his estimate as to assert (p. 26.) that 'Scotland grows scarcely one quarter of the quantity of corn necessary for its own consumption.' — The doctrine of a balance of trade, also, is still believed, and very seriously argued, (p. 36, 37.) by M. de Montgaillard.

In regard to loans, Sir Francis Baring has been the most frequent contractor in our day, and no man was more faithful to the ranks of opposition; yet this author dwells with great vehemence (page 51. 54.) on the influence which ministers study to acquire by the distribution of loans in the city. He is not aware, therefore, that the plan of open contract has abolished in this, and many other departments, the former practice of favouring individuals at the public cost. Neither is he sufficiently acquainted with the nature of our unfunded debt, to distinguish it from our circulating medium. Exchequer-Bills, Navy-Bills, India-Bonds, and South-Sea-Stock, are all in his opinion (p. 67. and 72.) of the same nature as bank-notes. 'The value of these (he says) is immense, but the total amount,' he gravely adds, 'is a very great mystery. One cause of all this circulation is, that in London nobody keeps in his own house any more money than is necessary for his current expences, but deposits his funds with his banker.' Such a custom we should have regarded as more likely to lessen than to increase the stock of circulating medium.—The greatest of all the author's errors, however, and that which perverts the whole reasoning of the book, is the notion that three-fourths of our revenue are dependent on the state of our foreign commerce. Calculating, from the materials afforded by the income-tax, that one-fourth of that tax arises from our land and funds, and the other three-fourths from productive labour, M. de M. forthwith assumes that *the latter must be* subject to all the casualties attendant also, it has become fashionable to extol the provisions of that treaty: but whoever will read Dr. Smith's observations on a still more celebrated compact, the Methuen treaty with Portugal, will be satisfied that the beneficial effects of both are greatly over-rated. Our manufactures flourished after 1786 because we were relieved from the burden of war, and the world was open to our trade; and they were benefited by intercourse with France, not in consequence of any particular stipulations, but because they always are advanced by an open exchange with an industrious and populous country.—Another favourite opinion of M. de Montgaillard is that, while the resources of France are natural, those of England are artificial:

> 'In the course of the revolution, Europe has seen France without laws, without a chief, and we may say, without wealth, support the *uncashing* (*démonétisation*) of thirty milliards of Paper Money! Europe has seen this Empire rise full of life and new vigour from the tomb in which all laws, social and political, seemed to be for ever buried. The cause of these prodigies is in the situation, in the territory, in the *nature* of the French Empire—of that Empire, the first and the most powerful of all states, because its wealth is founded on an order of things that is constant and imperishable.
>
> 'Let them attempt in England, or in any other State that *lives by commerce*, to reduce or call in their Paper Money, and we shall see that by such a measure the political constitution of that State will be overthrown. It is only those Powers which are essentially rich within their own territory, that can, under such circumstances, preserve their political existence against a bankruptcy.'
>
> 'There may be perceived in Britain a prosperity that seems incredible, and, at the same time, a real penury in the resources and various revenues of the State; because the greatest portion of those resources or revenues is accidental or artificial. In reality, the political fortune of this monarchy is founded on the loan and banking systems—a system and establishment which are themselves founded on the industry and commerce of Great Britain. The Bank has hitherto been the real pillar of the State; commerce supports the Bank, and both Bank and State are one and the same thing. The Bank makes a figure nominally, and not really, if we may be allowed the phrase, as a creditor of the State. The National Debt and the issuing of Bank Notes, have put all the private fortunes of the United Kingdom into the hands of the Government.'

This sort of idea was brought forwards, and, in our opinion, with language by much too absolute, in the opening debate of the present Session of Parliament. No doubt, in climate and in soil, as well as in superficial extent, France is greatly superior to the United Kingdom; and she consequently is at present, and will in all probability remain, much more populous: but those who allege that the resourses of England are artificial have looked at them only on the surface. They are struck with the interruption of our continental trade, without consideri the smallness of its proportion relatively to our whole trad They are alarmed at the depreciation of our paper-money, an in their haste, ascribe to national weakness that which is charg able on the impolicy of our government. If they will confi their view to natural resources, let them calculate how greatl our agriculture has been improved during the last twenty year On directing their attention to the districts in which the bes husbandry is practised, they will find that it is in these district that improvement continues most rapidly to advance. The may then safely draw the consolatory inference that the cultiva tion of our natural resources is far from being at a stand; an that the next twenty years promise to add as copiously to thei productive power as the last. M. de Montgaillard enlarges greatl (p. 23.) on the inadequacy of our crops to our population; and for the present he is in the right: but, were our landholders to follow the advice of Mr. Coke, and grant favourable leases, it would soon appear whether our soil be or be not equal to the maintenance of its inhabitants.

Our readers must be already satisfied that M. de Montgaillard belongs to that numerous class of writers who delight in pushing arguments to extremes. He expatiates on the reign of King William as the origin of all kinds of political evil to England; and the more considerate among us will not be slow to acknowlege that the loan-system, which then commenced, has been carried to a pernicious and extravagant length: as well as that we have interfered in war after war for the maintenance of the balance of Europe, when our policy should have been to leave its adjustment to the continental powers themselves. The author, however, will not be satisfied with qualified admissions; he must insist that we have brought ourselves to the verge of ruin; and that the gloomy predictions of Lord Bolingbroke, whom he perpetually quotes, have been verified. The most amusing thing is that, amid all this invective, M. de Montgaillard professes a friendly disposition towards us, 'I seek not,' he says, (p. 5.) 'to revive antient animosities between two nations which ought to honour and esteem each other; on the con trary, may antient enmities and jealousies be forced at last t yield to interests better understood, and to that spirit liberality, activity, and industry, which has spread itself ov Europe.'

From so complaisant a courtier, our readers will not be su prized to hear a panegyric on Bonaparte's usurpation of Hollan —'Holland,' he says, (p. 16.) 'ought to view the honourab incorporation of her Provinces with the French empire as a gre benefit. When the liberty of the seas shall have been reg

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lated, in the name of all the nations of Europe, the departments of Holland will be able to judge of the importance, commercial as well as political, which they have acquired by their incorporation with the empire. That period is not far distant.' Among all his effusions and transitions, however, on one point he is wary of touching, viz. Spain. Knowing how sore his Imperial master feels on that topic, he makes an invariable rule to "shun it through all the dire debate." It suits him better to inveigh (p. 109, 111.) against the negligence of the French cabinet for a century back in matters of trade, and to ascribe to that cause the flourishing commerce and naval preponderance of England. Not feeling confident, after all, that Bonaparte will succeed in depriving us of our superiority at sea, M. de M.'s alternative is to undervalue the utility of naval greatness. 'The most decisive nautical combats, and even the uncontested command of the ocean, have never,' he says, 'decided the fate of a great war. Maritime power always remains in a secondary state, and subjected to a secondary influence. When the poet said,

> "*Le trident de Neptune est le sceptre du monde,*"

he put a fine thought into very fine verse: but he advanced an absurdity, and abused the privilege granted to poetry in order to embellish and perpetuate illusions.' It is no doubt by pursuing this happy vein of reasoning, that M. de Montgaillard has made the pleasing discovery that 'to France a great naval disaster is only an accident!'

This publication, hasty and imperfect as it is, must evidently have been composed several months ago. The body of the book appears to have been sent to press in the month of August; at which time the bill brought forwards by our ministers, on Lord Stanhope's proposition, again called the author's attention to the state of our bank-paper, and gave occasion to the addition of a long Postscript, on the ruin about to overtake us in consequence of the forced currency now imparted to the notes of the Bank of England. M. de Montgaillard here enters into various details on the subject of our paper; and though in several passages he is less intemperate than in the preceding part of the book, we can find nothing in this money-discussion that is of sufficient novelty or magnitude to engage the attention of our readers. The substance of his reasoning consists in what we cannot avoid to acknowlege, viz. that a forced paper-currency very soon falls below gold, and that the expences of a government must become greater in the former than in the latter. With these reflections, the author finishes a tract which, had it been carefully digested, might have been

ed into half its present size. 'I perceive,' says
hat I fall into frequent repetitions: but I am
by the nature and importance of the subject
n:'—as if the importance of a subject were not
eighing it maturely, and avoiding those repeti-
e generally the effect of haste. Verbal errors
emarked in the course of our reading, but we
hether to attribute them to the author or to the
e duty of the latter, however, seems to be ex-
irit; though of its accuracy we have not the
ng, the original work not being before us; nor,
nd, in this country, with the exception of the
served for the translation.—We see no reason
inion entertained by some persons, that it is a
blication on the part of the French government.
y accord with Bonaparte's views,—several of
ecting civil administration proceed, we believe,
crude and erroneous as those of M. de Mont-
by no means likely that any public paper would
itted to go abroad in so loose and imperfect a

at we add a few words explanatory of our senti-
mportant discussions which M. de Montgaillard
th so bold a pen. With every disposition to
le ear to an argument for peace, we have found
vell with satisfaction on any part of his book, o
erwise than in terms of reprobation. In passing
on, we are not aware of being actuated by an un-
f the existence of our national embarrassments.

these circumstances may operate or the extent of their effect on Bonaparte's mind: but we are disposed to augur favourably on viewing them in connection with that anxious solicitude for peace which we know to be general throughout France, as well as with the sacrifices which he himself was willing to make until his infatuation with regard to Spain put an end to negotiation. Without hazard, therefore, of being charged with sanguine expectations, we may infer that the experience of late years will have a tendency both to moderate his tone in the stipulations of a treaty, and to give us some additional security for its observance when it is concluded.

Art. V. *On the Greek Prepositive Article, its Nature and Uses; a* Grammatical Dissertation. By Daniel Veysie, B. D. Rector of Plymtree, Devon; and late Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 40. 2s. Rivingtons. 1810.

"We find persons of great understanding," says Jeremy Taylor, "oftentimes so amused with the authority of their church, that it is pity to see them sweat in answering some objections which they know not how to do, but yet believe they must, because the church hath said it. So that if they read, study, pray, search records, and use all the means of art and industry in the pursuit of truth, it is not with a resolution to follow that which shall seem truth to them, but to confirm what before they did believe." (*Liberty of Prophesying, sect.* 10. *p.* 1013. 3*d edit.* 1674.)

We have formerly had occasion to observe (M. R. Vol. xx. p. 27. N. S.) that Mr. Veysie, though not very far gone in heresy and free-thinking, is by no means to be considered as one of Jeremy Taylor's *team.* He ventures to think for himself; and apparently, as far as we can judge of the internal determinations of any man's mind, with the laudable "resolution of following that which shall seem truth to him." We rejoice whenever we meet with a person of this description, though his opinion may differ from our own; because, as we have lived some time in the world, we know how difficult it is, "with all appliances and means to boot," to discover truth. The lamp of human wisdom burns with such a feeble light, that, if the road be in any degree intricate and difficult, the best sighted among us stands in need of every eye around him, as well of his own, to keep him in the right path. It is a lamentable thing, therefore, to observe so many of our fellow-travellers, either by their own folly or by the knavery of others, walking blindfolded; and it becomes more deplorable in proportion to the importance of the country to which they are travelling.—When we last had the pleasure of meeting Mr. Veysie, he was on the road of religious inquiry. We then expressed our satisfaction at the disposition which he manifested for a liberal investigation, even of a mystery; and our pleasure is here renewed at finding that he preserves the same love of freedom in pursuing the grammatical path, in which, to the incalculable benefit of the science, it has never yet been determined by authority that mysteries are necessary.

The great stress, which expositors of the N.T. have laid on the presence or absence of the prepositive article induced Mr. V. to examine the subject for himself; and his freedom from all such prejudice in favour of his individual opinion as would make him retain it in opposition to truth and reason, and his conviction that we all stand much in need of the assistance of others in our inquiries, induced him to examine Dr. Middleton's late work on this question * before he published his own, in the plan of which he had already made considerable progress when the Doctor's treatise appeared. The consequence of this examination was a persuasion that Dr. M. had failed in his attempt to explain the nature of the article, though his 'work is replete with learning, and contains a mass of materials collected with great industry, which cannot but be highly serviceable to every future investigation.' Of these materials, Mr. V. 'has not hesitated to make free use; chiefly in order to shew that the very examples, by which Dr. M. has illustrated his own hypothesis, may all be fairly accounted for upon the principle assumed in the dissertation' before us. This principle is that the article is demonstrative, not definitive: but, before he enters into any detail of his ideas, Mr. V. premises that the Greek *ὁ* and the English *the*, though they have the same general nature, have not precisely the same uses. To illustrate this position, he quotes a few sentences from the beginning of Xenophon's Anabasis; in some of which the article is omitted in the original when it should be inserted in the translation, and inserted in the original when it should not be rendered by *the* in the translation. Though there is no article in *πρεσβυτερος μεν Αρταξερξης, νεωτερος δε Κυρος*, (Xenoph. Anab. init.) 'a translator would find it convenient,' he says, to insert two in his version; and it would be proper to render ὑπωπτευε τελευτην τȣ βιȣ, by he "suspected *the* end of *his* life," and εις Καστωλȣ πεδιον by "in *the* plain of Castolus;" because it does not satisfy the sense of the passages to translate, "in plain," or even "in *a* plain," nor to translate "end," or "*an* end of *the* life."

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* See Rev. Vol. lxii. N. S. pages 68, 145, 266, 381. and 447. (Numbers for May, June, July, and August, 1810.)

N. B. In the above articles, the following errata, which escaped our notice, obscure the sense. P. 389. l. 22. for 'Acts xvii. 6.' read, Acts xvi. 6.—Ib. line 10. fr. bott. for 'Heb. ix. 29.' read, Heb. xi. 29.—P. 391. l. 28. for 'the meaning,' read, the *meeting*.—P. 394. l. 13. for 'definite,' read *indefinite*.—P. 447. l. 10. fr. bott. for 'determination,' read, *termination*.

This remark is very true; and we have declared in our review of Dr. Middleton's book that we regarded translators, more particularly of the N.T., as by much too stiff and formal in their endeavours to insert or to omit the article in their versions, exactly as it is inserted or omitted in the original. (See vol. lxii. pp. 387, 388, and 395, and also pp. 161. and 162. and the examples in p. 281.) They would sometimes do much better if they were to invert their practice, and were to omit the article in their translation when it is inserted in the original, and *vice versâ*; and if they were sometimes to use the indefinite article when the definite is employed in the original *. This, however, only proves that a difference exists in the *idiom* of the two languages, not that there is any difference in the nature or use of the article. By *use* we mean its office, the end and design of using it. In the first of the foregoing sentences from Xenophon, the verb substantive is omitted where a translator 'would find it convenient' to insert it in his version: but nobody says, or supposes, on this account, that any difference prevails in the nature or use of the verb substantive in the two languages. Nor does an idiomatic insertion or omission of the article prove its nature, or use, to be different in different languages. In Greek, the

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* Τον μοδιον (Matt. v. 15.) ὁ σπειρων (Id. xiii. 3.) are very properly rendered '*a* bushel,' and '*a* sower.' The Greek writer, by annexing the only article in his language to the adjective μοδιος, (for such we take it to be in its origin, whether Greek or Latin,) and to the participle σπειρων, shews that he not only means these words to be understood substantively, but that he also means them to be numbered, and understood definitely. It is evident, however, from the nature of the case, that he does not intend to speak of a definite or particular μοδιος, or σπειρων. These words, therefore, though they are both definite, are neither of them definite in their own classes. The one is not a definite μοδιος, but a definite utensil called μοδιος; and the other is not a definite σπειρων, but a person of a definite occupation called σπειρων. All that the Greek writer does here by his definite article, indirectly and with some ambiguity, the English translator does directly and without any ambiguity, by means of his indefinite article. In this ambiguous and, to some readers, as it appears, perplexing situation, many Greek nouns are found; and it is the duty of an English translator, when he finds them so situated, to rescue them from their ambiguity; which if he fails to do, he does not render justice to his own language and its indefinite article.

article

article varies its termination according to the number, gender, and case of its substantive; in English, no such variation takes place:—but who thinks of mentioning this fact as constituting a difference in the nature and uses of the article in the two languages? The *use*, and the only use, of inserting it in Greek is to shew that the word to which it is prefixed is more definite than it would be without the article. In English, and in all other languages that have an article, it is used exactly in the same way. In all languages, therefore, its nature and use are not only generally, but precisely, the same. (See M. R. vol. lxii. p. 159.)

As to τȣ βιȣ being translated '*his* life,' it is a very proper translation: but τȣ no more signifies *his*, in Greek, than *the* signifies *his*, in English. It is an idiom of the Greek language to use the personal pronoun with an article, in preference to the possessive pronoun without. Thus, instead of *my*, *thy*, or *his* life, the Greeks say *the* life of *me*, *thee*, or *him*. (see Rev. vol. lxii. p. 162.*) This usage is so constant and uniform that when, for the sake of brevity, the pronoun is omitted and the article employed alone, every reader who is conversant with the language instantly supplies the ellipsis for himself without any difficulty or hesitation, and construes the words as if the possessive pronoun had been used instead of the article †. Our definite article is often, though by no means *so* often as the Greek, used with a similar ellipsis :—of which we shall see more hereafter. That the use of the article in the foregoing sentences of Xenophon is precisely the same, that is, that the same effect precisely is produced by its insertion and its omission as in English, may perhaps be more apparent to some readers if those sentences be rendered literally, thus : " Artaxerxes, it seems, was older, and Cyrus younger." — " He suspected the life's end."—" On Castolus's plain."

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* A reason may be assigned for this practice in the Greek language which does not exist in ours. In Greek the possessive pronoun must conform to the number, gender, and case of the noun to which it is annexed: but if the possessive pronoun required be of the third person, and the noun be of a different gender from that of the person possessing, some ambiguity, or doubt, might arise as to whether the possessor were male or female. Ὁ πατηρ is either *his* father or *her* father. This ambiguity is avoided by using the article with the personal pronoun in Greek; and saying ὁ πατηρ αὐτȣ or αὐτῆς; and our language allowing no concord between the gender and number of the possessive pronoun, and that of the noun annexed, no ambiguity can occur.

† The mind contracts such a *habit* of doing this that it sometimes deceives itself, and is apt to suppose that there is something possessive in the nature of the article. Thus Mr. Veysie imagines that it has a 'double power of marking or pointing out both the determined signification and also the possessive relation,' of the noun; (p. 19. and see the whole section;) in the same way, we render the personal pronoun so *habitually* by the possessive, that we often lose sight of the difference between the two. Boys construe πατὴρ ἡμων so constantly "our father," that it excites some little surprize when they are told that this is not the literal translation of the words; and, trifling as the difference is between "our father," and "father of us," we have seen instances of the sense of a passage being mistaken from not attending to that difference.

After these preliminary observations, Mr. Veysie proceeds to establish his position that the article is not definitive but demonstrative ; and by the help of a little logic, which appears to us, perhaps from our want of comprehension, to be more technical than instructive, he soon arrives at the following ' general character,' or definition of the article ; ' *that it is a demonstrative, prefixed to words whose signification is determinate, and necessarily refers to something known or ascertained.*'

The various ways in which the article is employed for the purpose of demonstrating, Mr. V. reduces to eight cases ; four of which he considers as principal, and the other four as subordinate and growing out of the former. These eight cases together comprehend most of Dr. Middleton's canons for the insertion of the article ; and in some instances the cases and the canons exactly coincide. Thus the first of Mr. Veysie's cases is when the article demonstrates a noun and makes it determinate on account of *renewed mention* ; and his second is when the noun is used κατ᾽ ἐξοχην, under which head he also comprehends nouns that are *monadic*. His third case is when the noun signifies something which bears a *tacit*, or unexpressed, relation to some other thing in the discourse ; in which case, observes Mr. V., the article ' marks the relation of the noun, as well as its determinate signification.' ' This relative power,' which Mr. V. attributes to the article, and which, he says, ' is a very frequent and very important one, and will serve to explain the use of the article in many passages where it is otherwise inexplicable,' is the same with that which is attributed to it in Dr. Middleton's fourth canon, where he says that the article has the sense of a possessive pronoun. We intend presently to make a few remarks on this supposed power, or sense, of the article, but we will first finish our enumeration of Mr. Veysie's eight cases. — His fourth is when the noun signifies something which bears a relation that is not tacit, but *expressed* by the actual addition of some adjective, or of some pronoun, noun, or sentence which supplies the place of an adjective. His fifth is the case of *Regimen* or of *correlatives*, as Dr. M. calls it ; that is, of one noun governing another in the genitive case*. His sixth is a miscellany comprehending the use of the article with a noun *followed* by a possessive pronoun, an adjective, a participle, or a substantive; treating of the place of the article and its reduplication; and entering into some discussion respecting the nature of the participle, and of the relative and its right to the title of subjunctive article. His seventh case is when the article is used, as some suppose, indefinitely, or, as Dr. M. calls it, hypothetically; that is, in such general expressions of action, or character, as ὁ περιπατων, ὁ συκοφαντης, ὁ σπουδαιος, &c. The eighth, or last, is that of the article prefixed to adjectives in the neuter gender, without a substantive, to denote some attribute, quality, or property in the abstract; as το ωφελιμον, το καλον, το αγαθον, &c.

From the investigation of these eight cases, Mr. Veysie concludes that the Greek article is 'either *purely* demonstrative, or demonstrative with *relation*, or demonstrative with *attribution*.' Under the first of these divisions, are comprehended his first two cases; under the second, his three next; and under the third his last three. He adds that he is 'not at present aware that the Greek writers furnish any example which is not reducible to one of these cases.'

When Mr. V. calls the article a *demonstrative*,—if by that appellation he means to say nothing more than that it 'limits and restricts' those words to which it is prefixed, giving 'a determinate sense' to their significations which without the article would be 'vague' and indeterminate, (and this appears, more particularly from what he says in pages 11 and 12, to be hi meaning, at least so far as the use of the article is confined

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* In treating on the subject of Regimen, Mr. Veysie ment and seems to acquiesce in the decision of Apollonius, which Middleton had adopted before him, viz. that we must either λεοντος σκυμνιον without any article, or το του λεοντος σκυμνιον with Of this Dr. M. is so positive that, as we noticed, (Rev. Vol. p. 165.) he says it would be false Greek to write το λεοντος σκυ with only one article. This assertion, however, we shewed t unfounded; (Ibid. pp. 150, 151. and 159—165.) and Dr. M. mits that it is contradicted by the practice of Philo Judæus: then his style, he says, 'is florid, oratorical, and by no means corre 'Joseephus' he adds, 'is not liable to the same censure.' Ye this last writer we find, που δε εστι το κατοικητηριον των λεοντων, κα μητηρ σκυμνων; with only one article; (Antiq. lib. 9. cap. 11. fin. Vol. i. p. 501. edit. Haverc. 1726, folio.) and so in Job read, πας ὁ βιος ασεβους εν φροντιδι. (cap. 15. 20.); and in Herodo πολλοι δε ανδρων εχθρων τας δεξιας χειρας νεκρων εοντων αποδειραντες αυ ονυξι, και καλυπτρας των φαρετρεων ποιευνται. (Lib. iv. § 64. p. 310. Wesseling, 1763.)

appellative

appellatives*)—we see no difference, except in the name, between his notion of the article being a *demonstrative* and the common

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* Mr. Veysie seems to think that the article is used somewhat differently with an appellative and with a *proper name*, and says of the latter that its 'latitude cannot be circumscribed by the article.' (p.12.) We see no difference in the two cases. Among the Greeks and the Hebrews, whose proper names consisted commonly of a single word, which was given as an appellation to many different individuals, these names often stood in great need of having their latitude circumscribed by an article, without which they were little better than *common* names. (See Rev. Vol. lxii. pp. 389 and 390.) We, who live in times in which the memory of all perhaps but a single individual, of those multitudes who bore the same name among the antients, is swept away, are not properly sensible of that necessity for the article which the people themselves felt in these cases: but we can see a reason in the nature of their proper names for their using them so frequently with the article. The nature of those names will also supply us with a reason for another practice, not uncommon among the Hebrews, which was that of annexing the pronoun *he* (הו) to their proper names, and saying *Isaiah-he*, *Jeremiah-he*, &c. which resembled the practice, more frequently adopted in later times by the Chaldees and the Syrians, of adding a letter to the end of their nouns in order to make them emphatic, and had the same effect as the Greek custom of using their article κατ'ἐξοχὴν. It is not improbable, indeed, that the Greek personal pronoun of the third person neuter ὅ, which is now commonly considered as the relative, may have been derived from the Hebrew הוּ; and hence we may go one step farther back in tracing the origin of the Greek article than we went before, and may deduce it from the Hebrew. We will take this opportunity of adding that the neuter *het*, sometimes written *'t*, of the Dutch article *de*, from which Johnson and others derive our English article *the*, seems to be the same as our neuter pronoun *it*, with the addition of an aspirate; and the same likewise as the Greek, τι, with its final vowel made mute, and an aspirate prefixed; that is, the same as ὅ τι. It is to be remembered, also, that the Germans and the Dutch often gave to the letter *o* a sound scarcely distinguished from that of our *e*. A desire of shewing when they did this seems to have been the reason for their invention of their letter *o̊*, or ö; which they commonly substituted for the *o* thus sounded. Might they not sometimes substitute the simple *e* for the same sound? In these languages, too, the final *e*, though sounded, is always sounded softly, in a way which makes it approach very near to a mute. Hence we have a farther confirmation of what we formerly said about the origin both of the Greek and the English definite articles; and also of the identity of the two, and of the great affinity of all these particles to each other: all which becomes still more evident when we recollect that τ, δ, and ϑ, are, as the grammarians observe, *literæ ejusdem organi*, and as such very easily changed for one another. (See Rev. Vol. lxii. pp. 282, 283. note.)

its being a *definitive.* He says, indeed, that 'he does
t to this last opinion,' because the article 'does not
ne; its office being rather to demonstrate or point
o.)—but nobody, we believe, ever supposed that the
ve a definition of the word to which it is prefixed.
s intended by calling it a definitive is to say that, by
it, words are limited, defined, and circumscribed in
ude. 'Limited and defined' are here used as synony-
ns, in the same way as Mr. Veysie himself uses them
8. line 5.

V. means any thing more than this, when he calls
e a demonstrative; if he intends to say that it demon-
r points out, in *any particular way,* in some such way
ce as the words *this,* or *that,* or any of those words
e commonly called demonstratives, point out their
e think that he mistakes the nature, use, and office of
e *. Demonstratives, properly so called, are words
e accompanied either by some bodily action used, or
cription given, at the time; or which contain within
s some indication of nearness, or remoteness, of time,
.:—but the article contains nothing of this sort in its

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writer of a treatise on Grammar, (§ 27.) in the *Encyclo-
annica,* says, "there are few instances in which the place of

nature or use. It is much more general and unconfined, takes a much wider range, is applicable to a much greater variety of objects, and touches those objects in a much more slight and delicate way than any demonstrative can do *.

In this lightness of its touch, the article sometimes displays great beauty. In the case of Nathan and David, if the prophet had told the guilty monarch in plain terms, without any parable, that he had acted the part of an abominable villain, every one must see that *all* of that which is now so much admired in the narrative would be lost; and that the prophet's coarseness and force of the reproof consist in making David his own accuser; and the more the prophet leaves for the monarch's conscience to

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* Demonstratives not only declare a thing to be definite, or determinate, but always add to it more or less of the weight and solidity of the defining circumstances. They turn definiteness, which is but "the airy nothing of the imagination, the form of things unseen, into shape, and give it a body, a local habitation, and a name." This is manifest not only from the use and application, but from the very nature, origin, and etymological composition of them; which, as far as the Greek demonstratives are concerned, may be seen in our 62d Volume, pp. 282, 283.

Of the Latin demonstratives, *hic* seems to come from ὁ, and from the third person singular of the second aorist of ἵκω, ἥκω, or ἔχω, whence it derives its signification of *approaching*, *coming near*, or *adhering to*; *ille* from ὁ, and ἑλε he that *draws off*, that which is more or less removed from us; *ipse* from ὁ ἐπ' ἴσα, he *exactly*, *the very same*, the initial vowels of the last two words, ἐπ' and ἴσα, being sunken by the rapidity of pronunciation, and by the emphasis being thrown on the article; and *iste* from ὅς (which is the same with the Latin, *is*,) and ἔτι, he with something *more*, some *addition* of time, place, distance, or other circumstance: hence it denotes something *more* remote than *ille*, and is oftener accompanied than either *hic* or *ille* with some adjective, or substantive, to shew in what the additional circumstance consists; *iste vafer*, *iste nebulo*. The idea of contempt, which it sometimes includes, seems to be derived from our despising things which are more remote from us, and wishing to remove from us things which we despise.

The pronoun *is*, *ea*, *id*, is not properly either an adjective or a demonstrative. Use alone, or rather abuse, has made it such. Originally, it seems to have been three distinct substantives, corresponding to our three personal pronouns *he*, *she*, *it*; like the Greek ὅς, ἥ, ὅ, (see Rev. as above,) from which it is derived. It is rather singular that neither the Greek nor the Latin languages, as they are taught in all the modern grammars, should have any personal pronouns, properly so called, for the third person. A pronoun properly means a word that is substituted for a noun, strictly so called,—that is, for a substantive; and must itself, therefore, be a substantive. The defect, however, is in the grammars, and not in the languages.

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therefore suggests some idea of the same kind here; and in proportion as it does that, it makes Nathan bear harder, and lean more heavily, on the *application* of his parable, by which he weakens the spring and elasticity of David's conscience, and diminishes both its velocity and its force. The Arabic uses a word not less descriptive or demonstrative, for *man*, to which it prefixes the article; and then, by means of the relative, it straps on the additional *luggage* which both itself and the old Italic have evidently taken from the Septuagint.

In the subsequent examples from what are called the modern versions, we preserve the orthography of the edition from which the specimen is taken. The first of these that was printed, we believe, was the Catholic Italian version by Malermi, which issued from the press in 1471 in two volumes folio. In an edition printed in folio at Venice, 1507, his version of the passage in question stands thus: *Tu sei quel homo che hai facto questa cosa.* Antonio Brucciolì's Italian version, which is also Catholic, in his first edition printed at Venice, 1532, folio, is *Tu sei l'huomo*; and Diodati's Protestant version, first printed at Geneva 1607, small folio, *Tu sei quell' huomo.*

In the Catholic Latin version by Pagninus, 1527, Lugd. 4to.,—remarkable for its being so extremely literal, for its being the guide to all those Protestants who afterward in the infancy of the Reformation translated, as they said, from the Hebrew,—and for its being the first Christian Bible in which the Jewish division into verses was adopted,—we have *Tu es vir.* The Latin Protestant version by Sebastian Castalio, at Basil, 1551, folio, has, *Tu ille es.* That of the Zurich Divines in 1544, 8vo., *Tu es vir talis*, which they afterward altered in 1564 to *Tu es vir ille.* Tremellius and Junius, in their first edition, 1576, folio, Francof. ad Mæn., have *Tu vir ille es*, which is also the rendering of Le Clerc in 1708;—and lastly Schmidt, 1696, 4to., Argentorat. has *Tu es iste vir.*

Of the French Catholic versions, the oldest within our reach at present is one printed at Lyons for Jacques Sacon in 1518, folio. It is a sort of *Bible historiale*, and seems to contain Jean de Rely's correction of Guiart des Moulins' version, which was made about the end of the 13th, and first printed about the end of the 15th century. The passage in question is given in our copy in these words: *Tu es ung homme qui ci as fait.*—Jacques Le Fevre d'Estaples's version, Anvers, 1530, folio, is *Tu es cest homme icy qui a fait telle chose.*—That of the Louvain Doctors first made in 1550, and reprinted many times since, in the edition 1631, folio, is *Tu es cét homme.*—In the Protestant version of Robert Olivetan, which is the standard Bible, or *versio recepta*, as we may say, of the Huguenots, or French Calvinists, this passage, in the first edition, printed at Neufchatel in 1535, folio, stands thus, *Tu es cest hōme la*; and so it has been continued in the subsequent editions as improved by H. Stephens, by Sam. and Hen. Desmarêts in 1669, folio, and by David Martin, in 2 volumes folio, 1707. The first of these editors, in his impression printed at Geneva,

1565,

[illegible]

[illegible] while, [illegible] were [illegible] the

[illegible] Sebastian [illegible] folio,

[illegible] of the [illegible] made [illegible] Geneva versions [illegible] James I., [illegible] having been [illegible] edition of [illegible] folio,

[illegible] 1569, [illegible] with [illegible] by the [illegible] 1630, [illegible] which was cor- [illegible] 1553, has, *in*

[illegible] separate [illegible] and first publish- [illegible] 1540, the passage [illegible] *mann*. With this [illegible] Divines for the use of [illegible] Froschover at Zurich in [illegible] is known by the name

[illegible] before the synod of Dort, [illegible]. These were made from [illegible] published at Dort, one in [illegible] demonstrative is used, *Ghy zijt die* [illegible] the margin, *die het schaep den ar-* *men man ontnamen* [illegible] which is exactly the same as Henry Stephens's marginal addition annexed to his (1565) edition of Olivetan's French version. It is probable that the note came from Calvin, who was the first reviser and corrector of Olivetan's Bible. In a Dutch version printed at Arnhem in 1616, folio, the article is used, *Ghy zijt de* [illegible] *man*. The version which was made from the Hebrew [illegible] the synod, and which was first published at the beauty and the force are impaired and diminished. As the case stands at present, he does nothing more than merely make David a definite man: leaving *him* to determine *in what way* he was definite, which, in consequence of what had previously passed, he could not possibly mistake. No demonstrative could have been used without the prophet taking on himself to point out *how* David was definite, — without his saying that he was definite in that particular way which had been previously described.

The *article* then *always* makes its object definite, but *never* does any thing more; it *never* points out the particular way in which it is definite: which it always leaves to be determined by the nature and circumstances of the case. It always limits, but, if we may be allowed the expression, it limits in the most unlimited way. — The *demonstrative* not only makes its object definite, but does more: it points out or demonstrates the way in which it is definite; and from doing this it appears to us to have derived its name. It is not called demonstrative because it defines or limits, but because it points out, or *shews the way*, in which things are limited.—The utility of the *article* consists in its comprehensive conciseness, not in its precision: while the utility

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Leyden in 1637, folio, has the demonstrative *die*, which has been followed by all the subsequent editions.

The Danish version, in an edition printed at Copenhagen, 1607, 8vo. is, *Du est manden*: — The Finnish version, made by order of Queen Christina, and printed at Stockholm in 1642, folio, has, *sinä olet se mies*: — The Swedish, in a copy printed at Amsterdam, 1688, 8vo. *Tu aͤst then mannen*: — The Livonian, Lettish, or Esthonian, printed at Riga, 1689, 2 vols. 4to. *Tu esti tas wihrs*; — and lastly, the Welsh made by Wm. Morgan, first printed in 1588, folio, and afterward considerably altered and improved in 1620 by Richard Parry, has, in a subsequent edition, published at Oxford in 1690, folio, *Ti yw'r gŵr*.

When we said that all these renderings are inferior in beauty to the original, we made an exception in favour of one. Our readers, we think, will be at no loss to discover that the one intended is the French version of Chasteillon; the *c'ĕt toi* of which is, in our opinion, equal, if not superior to the original.

These specimens will clearly point out, to every reader of taste, the great difference between the *effect* produced by the article and that which is produced by the demonstrative, in cases in which some persons are apt to suppose it to be a matter of no importance whether the one or the other be used; — and this difference of effect arises from a difference in the *nature* of the two words, the article merely indicating that its object is definite, and leaving it to the reader to discover from the nature of the case the way in which it is so; while the demonstrative not only declares the object to be definite, but also points *out, or demonstrates, the* circumstance that makes it so.

of the *demonstrative*, on the contrary, consists in its precision, and not in its comprehension. Where the *demonstrative* is useful and is used once, the *article* is useful and is used a thousand times. The artificial contrivance of *genus* and *species* saves us from multiplying words when we do not want to point out, or make known, any difference in our ideas. (See Rev. Vol. lxii. p. 279. and 280.) So the *article* often saves us from multiplying words in many cases in which we *do* want to make known some difference in our ideas. A mechanic, or an artist, when he calls for *the* tool, or *the* instrument, is perfectly well understood by his attendant without giving any description of the particular tool or instrument which he wants; or without making any the least bodily motion or sign whatever. The nature of the work about which he is employed, and the knowlege and habitual services of the attendant, supply all that the article wants in point of precision: nay, we can sometimes make ourselves sufficiently understood by merely saying "give me *the*—," without adding any other word or making any sign whatever.

It is this circumstance which discriminates between the article properly so called, and all those other words which Harris terms pronominal articles; and which he, and Beauzée, and some others, would rank with the article. (See Rev. vol. lxii. p.72.) These words all specify in different ways the limiting circumstance, which the article never does; and this it is which draws the line of distinction between them,—and a broad line it is.

We say, the article never specifies the limiting circumstance. This we have already shewn, in our account of Dr. Middleton's book, with regard to most of those circumstances which are comprised in his twenty canons, and which Mr. Veysie reduces to his eight cases; and we intended to have shewn it distinctly of all Dr. Middleton's canons, but were obliged to omit a part of what we had written, by want of room. We will take this opportunity, then, of laying before our readers the observations which we had drawn up with respect to those powers which both Dr.M. and Mr.V. suppose the article to have, of expressing the possessive pronoun, and of shewing, or demonstrating, that a neuter adjective is used in an abstract sense. The first of these powers, which constitutes Dr. Middleton's fourth canon, and Mr. Veysie's third case, the latter gentleman considers as very important; and this is the reason which induces us to make some remarks on it.

Before, however, we offer our opinion on the possessive relation in particular, we will say a few words on the subject of relation in general, as far as it respects the article; because, though the examples by which Mr. Veysie illustrates his third case are almost wholly confined to the particular relation, yet the position which he lays down at the beginning of that case, viz. that 'the article marks relation,' is general.

Now it cannot be doubted that the relation which one thing bears to another is often the cause of its being definite: but the article only marks the effect; it takes no notice of the cause. It does not even mark its existence, much less its nature. It does not point out that there *is* any relation, except that of the thing being numbered and definite among other things: still less does it *specify* that relation so as to shew whether it be possessive, or of any other kind. In this, as in every other instance, the article leaves it to the nature and circumstances of the case to determine the particular way in which the thing is definite. It merely declares the fact, without having any thing to do with the cause. The business of the article is simple, uniform, and every where the same, being merely that of declaring whether things are definite or indefinite: while the circumstances which render them so are infinitely various.

Mr. Veysie is right, however, in saying that relation 'will serve to explain the use of the article in many passages where it is otherwise inexplicable;' that is, it serves to make things definite which would otherwise be indefinite. It sometimes does this in cases in which the relation is so slight, (perhaps nothing more than that of a person, or thing, being the agent, or patient, in some action mentioned at the time, or that of the mutual connection of two things with each other,) that it is apt to be overlooked; and the oversight has contributed to the error of supposing that the article is sometimes used indefinitely.

Plutarch, in his *Conjugalia Præcepta*, (Vol. i. p. 249. edit. Steph. 8vo. 1752.) has given us the following little anecdotes: Ἡ μεν γαρ ωδινουσα και δυσφορουσα προς τους κατακλινουντας αυτην ελεγε, πως δ'αν ἡ κλινη ταυτα θεραπευσειεν οἱς επι της κλινης περιπιπτωσιν; and Ὁ τον δραπετην ιδων δια χρονου, και διωκων, ως κατεφυγε φθασας εις μυλων, που δ'αν, εφη σε μαλλον ἑυρειν εβουληθην η ενταυθα. These, Hoogeven, in his notes on Vigerus, (edit. Herman. 1802, p. 19.) produces as instances of the indefinite use of the article: but they are not so. It is true that they may be translated by, '*a* man, seeing his run-away slave,' &c. and '*a* woman in labour,' &c. but this, though a very proper, would not (to borrow Mr. Veysie's words on a former occasion) be a 'a strict translation.' The two expressions are not exactly equivalent. The English does not determine whether *any* man and *any* woman, nor whether a *certain* man and *certain* woman, be meant, but leaves this to be ascertained by the nature and circumstances of the case; while the Greek, on the contrary, declares that it was a certain man and woman, and is therefore of itself definite. The man and woman are considered as definite by the writer on account of their being *the* man, and *the* woman, who in those circumstances said what is there related. In like manner, οἱ δὲ ἐῤῥάπισαν in Matth. xxvi. 67. is definite, and means certain persons who are rendered particular and definite by the action performed at the time:—they were *the* men who smote, the smiters. So again in John xix. 29. οἱ δὲ πλήσαντες .... προσήνεγκαν means certain persons, who were definite by the very act:—they were *the* men who brought, the bringers. In Mark viii. 24. βλέπω τοὺς ἀνθρώπους ὡς δένδρα means the men who were imperfectly distinguished; and so in Ephes. iv. 11. καὶ αὐτὸς ἔδωκε τοὺς μὲν, ἀποστόλους· τοὺς δὲ, προφήτας, &c. though rendered in the common version (and, as more agreeable to the English idiom, well rendered) "some, apostles; some, prophets," &c.* means definite, certain persons

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* The word *some*, like the indefinite article *a*, leaves it to the nature of the case to determine whether *any* some or a *certain* some be intended. "If I had but some I should be satisfied," that is, *any* some. "I gave him some," that is, a certain some. It seems to have been originally the same word as the substantive *sum*, converted into an adjective by the hurry and inaccuracy of familiar conversation. "I saw some people" is nothing more than "I saw *a* sum o' people," in which the article *a* and the preposition *of* have been lost in the rapidity of talking. "There were some twenty or thirty" is, in like manner, "there were a sum" (i.e. in sum, in round numbers) "twenty or thirty." In the Saxon, the word *some* is spelt both with an *s* and with a *z*. Its immediate progenitor may have been the Latin word *summa*; and its more remote ancestors, the Greek words σὺν ἅμα, *together*.

When *some* is used with a substantive in the singular number, denoting an individual person or thing, it seems to bear rather a different meaning, arising from a different application of its Greek original. In this situation, it cannot signify a quantity of any thing, nor a number of things taken together, but must mean a thing taken, or existing, *together* with the time, place, action, or other circumstance then mentioned or under consideration; something coexistent, something that in point of time, place, action, &c. is the *same* (ἐς ἅμα) with or coincides with the thing in question. "*Some* man will say how are the dead raised?" i.e. the *same* man who says it will say, &c. "Him .... the pilot of *some* small night-founder'd skiff, Deeming *some* island," (Par. Lost. i. 204.) i.e. of *such* skiff, whatever it may be, the same *skiff* that happens to be so situated; and an island *such* or the *same* as he deems it to be. In this way, the word is used in many of its compounds, *sometime*, *somewhat*, *somewhere*, &c. and occasionally perhaps in the plural.

Thus

sons who were made definite by the appointment:—they were *the* persons appointed. That this is the true explanation appears from 1 Cor. xii. 28. where we read *και οὓς μεν εθετο . . . . πρωτον αποστολους, δευτερον προφητας*, &c. The only difference between the two passages is that the former has an ellipsis of the relative (ους), and the latter an ellipsis of the antecedent (τους): but the comparison of the two shews clearly why the article is used in the former, and that the relation which the persons bear to the appointment is the circumstance that particularizes them and makes them definite *.

Sometimes the relation, as we said, may be nothing more than the reciprocal connection of two nouns with each other; each of which, though indefinite in itself, makes the other definite, and is made definite in its turn, merely in consequence of their being mutually related, and thus limiting and particularizing each other. Thus in Matth. vi. 34. *αρκετον τῃ ἡμερᾳ ἡ κακια αυτης*, "*the* day" is that on which the evil happens, and "*the* evil" is the evil which happens on that day. In most of these phrases, there seems to be an ellipsis of the pronoun *αυτος*,

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Thus it appears that the words *some*, *sum*, and *same*, are originally only one word, varied in its orthography, to express a variety in its application or meaning. This has been the fruitful source not only of many of those words, but also of many of those letters, which in different languages resemble each other; and the remark is not a mere matter of curiosity, but will be found very useful in the interpretation of words and languages; more especially when those languages are scanty, or when time has left but little of them remaining,—as the Hebrew, for instance:—but then much care must be taken not to give too great a loose to the imagination, which, if not checked by the *actual use* of language, by the *context*, and by other restraining circumstances, will be very apt to run wild in a field which admits so much scope for fancy.

We take this occasion of observing that, in the phrase "all the men," which we noticed in Rev. Vol. lxii. p. 391. note, we rather think there is an omission of the preposition *of*, similar to that which we have mentioned in the beginning of this note; and that *all* is there a substantive. "All the men" is a corruption of "all o' the men."

* The use of the article noticed in this paragraph bears a great resemblance to the use of the personal pronoun in those verbs which are improperly called impersonal verbs. "They say" means "the sayers say;" and "it rains," "it snows," mean, not as is sometimes said, "the rain rains," but the cause of rain, whatever it be, rains: for in the days of philosophical ignorance a specific cause was assigned for each separate effect, a raining cause for the rain, and a snowing cause for the snow, &c.; and in the days of religious ignorance the people deified many of those causes, to which much of their polytheism owed its origin.

which is expressed in the latter part of this: but it is
cessary to express it. Thus we have in Acts xvii.
χρονους της αγνοιας, which does not mean " times of ign
in general, — nor any times of any ignorance past, pres
to come, — but certain times of a certain ignorance, *th*
of *the* ignorance which prevailed in those days. A similar
occurs in 1 Cor. x. 13. *ποιησει συν τω πειρασμω και την εκβα*
in many other places both of the sacred and the profane

We must here suspend this long investigation, which
pose to terminate in our next number: where we sha
our promise to consider the possessive relation, or the
which the article is supposed to have of expressing the po
pronoun.

[*To be continued.*]

Art. VI. Mr. Bentham's *Theory of Punishments and R*
edited in French by M. Dumont.

[*Article continued from the Rev. for January, p.* 71—

OUR observations on the first volume of this int
work have carried us much farther than we at
pected, and it still offers a number of topics which
pass unnoticed. We shall advert to some of them in the
article, without following the order in which they are
by the writer.

Under the head of *Misplaced Punishments*, which forms
of a very ingenious chapter, it is painful to find that so
the examples are furnished by provisions and enactmen
make parts of the laws of England. In this class of punis
the author places the proceedings which are adopted in
suicide in this country. 'The offender is punished
as he can be; he is buried with ignominy, and his rem
treated with contumely: but what is this, compared
punishment which the same proceedings indirectly infli
wife, and children, and creditors? The family has lost
tection and support, and this is the moment of which
lays hold to overwhelm it with misery.'—To the sophistr
is commonly used in defence of this barbarous usage,
replies: 'The wretched and indigent, then, who, afte
calculated as Cato did, come to the same determinati
him, are those alone [illegible] are judged according to
rigour of the law. T[illegible] remedy for these unnatur
ments is perjury;—p[illegible] the panacea. This must be
while the law sets hu[illegible] and religion at variance.'

Mr. Bentham remarks that the doctrine of Reprisals, as laid down by writers on public law, is liable to the same objections; although he grants that in some cases they are indispensable. 'Humanity,' he says, 'requires us as much as possible to limit them, to give them the greatest publicity, and to let them be preceded by declarations which shall announce them.' On this occasion, as well as many others, we have perceived that, however vigorous and intrepid are the author's thoughts, his decisions are always restrained by sober judgment: though eminently an original thinker, he is never a visionary; and if sometimes the boldness of his onset awakens our fears, we always find his conclusions to stand the test of reason and experience. Of every part of the nice disquisitions which constitute this singular chapter, such is our decided opinion.

The so much disputed point of the Corruption of Blood is examined by the author in the same chapter, in his usual manner; and though he decides in favour of truth and reason, he candidly meets the difficulties which in particular cases surround the practical question, and admits that they may be such as to require qualifications of the abstract doctrine.

'State-crimes,' says Mr. Bentham, 'may arise from different causes; from want, from resentment, and from ambition: but in many instances they proceed from the purest motives. People do not or will not see that the character of *rebel* or of *loyalist* depends on the accidents of war; that individuals the most wise, and of the most innocent intentions, differ in opinion on the title of pretenders to the crown, or on constitutional questions; and that party-spirit alone considers *rebel* and *miscreant* as synonymous terms. In unfortunate times, duties and rights become problematical; and the Hydes and Falklands, the Seldens and the Hamdens, threw themselves on contrary sides. Who can read the secrets of the heart? Some embrace a good cause from sordid considerations; and others adopt the bad from the best designs. When the rebellion of the chief is founded on conscientious motives, it is probable that his children and dependents are animated with the same dispositions. The rebellion may, in such a case, be a family-crime.

'Now, as to the case of secret treasons. If, for example, a chief sells himself to the enemy, if he commits one of those crimes which are always accompanied by bad faith, which arise out of sordid motives, and which are condemned by the universal voice of mankind, we can have no reason for regarding such an offence as a family-crime. His wife, children, and friends, are probably strangers to his intrigues; which are, in all likelihood, as much concealed from them as from the rest of mankind. His dereliction, therefore, is no more a family-crime than murder or robbery. It is a personal crime; and whatever those who are innocent are made to suffer is pure loss.'

With regard to Deodands, the barbarism and cruelty of which are universally felt, Mr. Bentham says 'that the Athenians banished from their territory the stone which, in had killed a man: but we do not find that they confisca house of which it made a part.'

In the chapter in which the author treats of *Collecti nishments*, he clearly points out the defects of the proc adopted in Parliament against the borough of Shoreham considered as a punishment. The visitations experien that place, by Cricklade formerly, and by Aylesbur lately, were wholly unjust when regarded as isolated ments.

Nothing in the present volume is more labored, greater practical importance, than the discussion of the pacity of giving evidence, which is decreed for so ma fences by the law of England. We must, however, re luctantly, pass on to other matters.

While submitting the punishment of Death to the before laid down, and to which we have so frequently al Mr. Bentham says that, as it respects taking away the po injuring, it is complete; that, as it respects the crime of der, it is analogous and popular; and that in all case exemplary. Here he shews the absurdity of the ext which Beccaria carries an observation, which we have quoted; and which, when properly qualified, we deem just and highly important.—Mr. B.'s strictures on the p ment of death are among the most valuable in the vo and their superiority will be very apparent, on comparing even with the admirable remarks on the same subject author to whom we have been just referring. (*Dei Deliti* sect. 16.) In the course of the discussion, Mr. Bentham t out an observation, the weight and application of which will dispute. 'Such,' he says, 'is the situation of the g number of malefactors, that their being is only a co tion of many species of miseries; their life is a constant occasioned by the fear of the laws, and their ever-growing and their existence, thus deprived of all that can give it would not be worth preserving, but for a few clandestine sures which they can purchase only by crimes.' Hen concludes that these unhappy creatures form a very differen mate of the value of life, from that of persons whose exis is more tranquil; and he supposes that legislators, in reasonings on the subject, have not been aware of this We agree with him in thinking that the punishment of is, in every case except murder, unpopular; and that i become the more so, as the public mind grows more info and manners are ameliorated.—The word *unpopular*, all similar instances in this volume, is here used in a good and means that the feelings of the best regulated minds revolt at the scene, while reason sanctions the antipathy.

Among the subjects of which Mr. Bentham treats in this volume, and to which the whole force of his mind has been directed, we must specify the practice of *Promiscuous Imprisonment*, and that of *transporting Convicts to Botany Bay*: both of which he exposes with admirable effect. Indeed, we think that no person can peruse his pages, without being astonished that these systems have been so long endured in an enlightened and civilized nation. In regard to Transportation, he derives all his facts from Col. Collins's account of Botany Bay; though that gentleman was a warm advocate for the use to which the colony was then and has ever since been applied.

When Mr. B. expatiates on the good effects which he supposes to arise from his improved plan of imprisonment, the reader should recollect what has actually been done by means of institutions of this sort in North America. Schemes approaching to that which is here proposed, and which have great merit, have before been submitted to the public: but the present appears to us to have important advantages over any which we have seen. From the openness with which the author would direct all the concerns of his projected prison to be transacted, he would have it called by the name of Panopticon. The sketch of it here given is taken from the third volume of the *Traités de Législation*; and its importance induces us to lay before our readers the leading outlines:

'1. It should be a circular building, or polygon, with cells in the several stories of the circumference. In the centre, should be a lodge for the Inspector, whence he might see all the prisoners without being seen himself, and whence he might forward his directions to each without quitting his post.'

Though we do not profess to have devoted much thought practically to this subject, we highly approve the principle of contrivances of the sort here suggested; and we are persuaded that, by a judicious application of them, the great and beneficent views here recommended may be materially assisted and promoted.

'2. The administration is to be by contract; and the person to whom it is to be intrusted is to provide for all at a fixed price per head. All the prisoners are to be employed, and their labour is to be wholly under the controul of the administrator; who is to have the liberty of forming them to any trade; and who, in order to call forth their utmost exertions, shall assign to them a part of the gains which they earn. The person who fills this situation is to be at once a magistrate, an institutor, the head of a trading concern, and the head of a family. The leading idea in these arrangements is to combine together the interest and the duty of the person who presides.

' 3. With the same view, the administrator is charged with the insurance of the lives of the prisoners. He is to be allowed a fixed sum for each life surviving the calculation of deaths in each year in the establishment, and to pay a like sum for each which exceeds such calculation, and for such as escape from his custody *.

' Publicity is the most effectual preserver against abuses. Prisons have hitherto been covered with a thick veil: but the prison here proposed is to be as it were transparent. It is to be always open to the magistrates, and to the public at stated hours or days. From the intended lodge, all the prisoners would be at once seen by each spectator, and their usage and situation would be at all times known.'

We will not urge the necessity of adopting the precise model proposed by the author: but let his leading ideas be pursued, and let the ends which he proposes be attained: we see no impossibility in the scheme; and if it be effected, we shall be blessed with a state of things in respect to these matters which we have never yet beholden, but from which it is not being too sanguine to anticipate highly favourable results. The examples of Philadelphia and New York, making all allowances for the very different circumstances of the places in which they were witnessed, warrant us in expecting ample success to attend our pains and labour of this description.

Mr. B. next submits punishment by this species of imprisonment to the several tests which he has proposed for its verification, and of which we have before given an account. He examines it with a view to example, to reformation, to the suppression of evil, to the compensation of the injured party, and to economy; and as to the last head, he calculates that, on this plan of punishment, each prisoner would cost government not more than one-third of the sum which is now expended on every convict who is transported to Botany Bay.

These disquisitions are to be regarded as the practical part of the present work, and will be found to convey much valuable information to those who feel the importance of revising our criminal code; as well as essential assistance in any attempts which they may consequently make to ameliorate our system of punishments. — That we here meet with as much of *detail* as is consistent with the plan of this performance, we are bound in justice to state: but we must express the desire which we have felt that, at this juncture, the author, whose conceptions in these matters are so excellent, had in this respect performed a work even of supererogation, and had exhausted the subject;

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* From this provision, the author anticipates the greatest benefits with regard to the health and well-being of the prisoners.

ject; leaving nothing to be noticed in the scale, from the lowest degree of chastisement to the highest punishment with which it may be necessary to visit our erring nature.

Viewing with ardent good wishes the unexpected attempts to assert the rights of justice, so worthy of genius and of enlarged beneficence, which these times have witnessed, we have always been apprehensive that, however cautiously they might be introduced and however ably supported, great success was not to be expected till a scale of punishments should be prepared, to supersede those which their advocates defend only on the score of necessity or of non-execution. We have therefore been long anxious to see our enlightened reformers apply their minds to this most important preliminary object; and the volume before us much facilitates such an undertaking. Experience and judgment in these affairs, and leisure, are alone wanted; and whenever the inquiry is instituted in earnest and completed, the project to which we have alluded, and which does so much honour to its distinguished author and to the age, will be encouraged, and we hope finally effected. Few men of liberal attainments now remain to be fully informed of the injustice and incongruity of the present system. Its amendment is admitted to be a desideratum. As we before observed, the disregard shewn to justice by her own ministers, when arrayed in her garb, and officiating in her name, is acknowleged; the outrages committed against her in her very temples are felt; and the refined sensibilities of that mind which invites sympathy even to the outcasts of our species, which recognizes them as members of society, and which asserts their claims to equal justice, are seen and admired. Only a few years ago, enlightened men were entire strangers to abuses in our courts, which they now do not affect to deny; little did they know that the laws *enacted* in this country were one thing, and that the laws *enforced* were another; that the lives and liberties of the subject are not to be affected only by law, as they proudly thought, but by mere discretion; and that perjury, remissness in prosecuting, and a dereliction of sacred duty, were deemed minor evils in our courts, and passed even for virtues. To these facts, the best informed men among us were as much strangers as the inhabitants of Japan; till Sir Samuel Romilly, to the surprize first of impartial hearers and next of a like description of readers, at once opened to our view astonishing discoveries in scenes with which we had been always conversant, and taught us to see in their true light transactions which we had always had before our eyes, and in which we had often borne a part. It rarely happens to genius to make such striking discoveries in so beaten a track: but this is the least part of the merit of Sir

He has made it appear that we have been not onl
flagrant injustice to the unjust, but that our trans-
have oppressed the innocent and the honest. It is th
eaven that equal justice alone should protect ;—justic
eyond her limits is injustice, and is the friend of cri-
d the scourge of the upright. This law of heaven, sc
f its author, neither our logic nor our theology ha
to teach us; and we are beholden for the animating
on to the same lips which first sounded in our asto-
rs the facts which we have been relating. The labours
ence have conducted to a field of the finest discoveries ;
e we only expected to be warmed by goodness of heart,
d to the admiration of felicity of genius. The sub-
Sir Samuel Romilly's speeches has been since given
blic by him in a pamphlet *; of which the able and
editor of the present volumes admirably says :

> work requires to be meditated ; the form, which is still
> t of a speech, carries the reader along too rapidly ; and it
> frequently recurring to it, that we become sensible of all
> t and experience which it contains. It is the fruit of the
> ttention of a superior man, who never lost sight of this
> o has studied the criminal laws of all Europe, and observed
> anges which they have undergone during the last thirty
> d can it be doubted that this comparison of laws made on

our readers the several propositions into which the editor has reduced the statements of the two contending parties. In order to give them the more effect, he arranges them in two opposite columns, and we shall follow the same plan.

All ought to be clear in the law, and all laws ought to be executed.	All ought not be clear in the law, and all laws ought not to be executed.
All the good which the law effects, it effects only in consequence of its being known and of its being executed.	All the good which the law effects, it effects without being known, or being executed.
The law should be the same for all; the law alone should rule; the judge should only be its dispenser and organ.	It is not necessary that the law should be the same for all, nor that the law should reign alone. The judge should not be only its dispenser and organ.
If the law decrees one punishment, and Courts constantly inflict others, —if the law be so odious as to make the perjury which eludes it a meritorious act, — if it be so disproportionate to the offence as to render necessary the constant palliative of an arbitrary judgment or pardon, —the law is evidently faulty; and the more ground there is to justify those who prevent its execution, the more is there which condemns the law.	The law is evidently good, if it decrees one punishment, and the Courts constantly inflict others.—If it even be so odious as to render meritorious the perjury which eludes it, — if it be so disproportionate to the offence, as to render necessary the constant palliative of an arbitrary judgment or pardon, — all this does not prevent the law from being good; and we may approve of those who prevent its execution, without casting the least doubt on the excellence of the law.

The spirit of reform, it is observed, 'is not in England a mode which carries all before it. In a free country, all opinions have a force which enables them to maintain a struggle, and they surrender themselves only to conviction.' — 'How much time and what efforts did the abolition of the slave trade cost? Conquests are difficult in a country which is full of fortresses, but what is gained on such a soil is not again lost. With regard to the penal laws, they are in fact abolished; and only the shadow of them remains, which their defenders are anxious to retain.' — The turn of the debate in the House of Peers, on this subject, leads M. Dumont to anticipate that 'the criminal laws of

England will soon be worthy of figuring in the British constitution.' We feel all the weight of this compliment from this benevolent and very intelligent stranger; and may these and all such auspicious prophecies be verified!

We have, indeed, many reasons for believing that the late discussions in Parliament produced a very general sensation; and that several intelligent and benevolent persons have taken a great interest in the present subject, and are desirous that the investigation of it should be prosecuted. We hope that this valuable class is not small, and that those who rank under it are to be found in every part of the kingdom. To them we recommend the most sedulous attention to the grave questions which are involved in that discussion, and the careful study of the volume before us. We address ourselves to those persons whose primary wish is for the well-being of the society which they uphold and adorn. The recent increase of crimes presses the subject on their consideration, and strongly corroborates the proofs in argument which demonstrate the imperfection of the present system. Let wisdom, virtue, and independence, in respectable private stations, assume this direction, and we shall expect the fulfilment of M. Dumont's cheering prediction which we have just transcribed.

We intend to conclude our view of this publication in our next number.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VII. *The Tyrolese Villagers;* or a Prospect of War. An Epistolary Tale. With other Poems. By T. Robinson, Esq. late of Seaford, Sussex. Crown 8vo. 6s. Boards. Pannier, &c.

WE were led to imagine, from the title-page, and other equivocal marks about this volume, that Thomas Robinson, Esq., *late* of Seaford in Sussex, had been "gathered to the tomb of his fathers;" and our sympathies were strongly excited in favour of the unfortunate defunct, whose executors would not permit him to rest in quiet, but had unwarrantably raked together the literary follies of his life in order to asperse his memory. Under this impression, we had nearly finished a critique "more in pity than in anger," when an advertisement at the head of a long list of errata attracted our attention; and we discovered that the said Esquire was not only alive, but the father of a young and numerous family. Persons less inclined to charity than ourselves might have considered this partial show of death* as a kind of *ruse de guerre* to disarm criticism of its severity by awakening its compassion: but we now feel convinced that it was wholly unintentional, and originated in that confusion of ideas and that vagueness of expression, which render the poetry of this gentleman equally obscure and doubtful in its construction.

The volume is miscellaneous; containing one epistolary tale; three tales not epistolary; three ballads; five odes, translated, most miserably, from Horace; one epitaphium; and a dozen verses to a portrait-painter. The first tale (from which the volume receives its name) opens with the praises of Charles Verral, Esq. to whom Mr. Robinson, having nothing better to do, as he informs us, than

> 'Sit still, and tag full many a *sleepy rhyme*,
> To fill the dull vacuity of time,' — p. 12.

was accustomed to transmit his '*sleepy rhymes*,' after he had '*tagged* them.' Mr. Verral, as far as we can judge from his friend's account, seems to be a respectable gentleman, resident at the aforesaid town of Seaford, and serving Apollo in the double capacity of poet and apothecary. After very liberal encomiums on this brother Esquire, and on his physic, the author touches on the afflictions of one Damon; and the whole passage really deserves transcription. We particularly invite the attention of our readers to the simile of the *gin-barrels*:

> '*Angry, I Damon's* hapless fate bemoan,
> For candour punish'd, and by truth undone!
> Ye pow'rs! why not upon his shoulders place
> A head, *whose dull nonentity of face*,
> Whose solemn nods, and speech of grace, and *Paul*,
> Display the *godly workings* of the *soul*,
> *As letter'd butts, outside the shop of gin*,
> Announce the spirit that is sold within?'

The elegant writer proceeds in his song for seven or eight pages, chatting about the Ouse, the Wolga, the Garronne, and Boreal climes, and Folly, and Mr. Verral, till he arrives at length

> 'Where the rough *Tyrol spreads its viny plain*,'

(which we were not aware that this mountainous tract was very apt to do,) and begins his story. A tragical story it is! for, from commencement to end, we hear of nothing but terrors, war, death, *marriages*, and conflagration. — Allan and Agnes, a newly-wedded pair, dwell contentedly in the Tyrol with the bride's father. The old man

'Lived

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* In the notes, the following remark (p. 97.) occurs: — 'The author must have meant essence of mustard!' *Editor*.

'Liv'd his few years, rejoicing in her doom,
Then found a better Sabbath in the tomb.'

In the next couplet, Agnes (in the language of Douglas and the newspapers) feels herself "as ladies wish to be who love their lords," and is delivered of two sweet boys. The author here kindly allows us four lines of rest and happiness, while he collects his rage for storms and battles, which are delayed no longer than the ensuing distich:

'At length, resounding from Italia's shores,
The *furies storm, and harsh the battle roars*:
Gaul's vet'ran bands, inur'd to deeds of blood,
Cross the rough Rhine,—and—*brave the Mantuan flood*.'

We know not where to find a nobler specimen of the bathos, even among our contemporary poets. It is like that sublime passage in the "*Propria quæ maribus*," in which, after we have been expecting some description of the Tiber, as the king of rivers, (*Fluviorum Rex*, &c.) the line abruptly ends with the mention of another stream—

"*Fluviorum Tybris! — Orontes.*"

The alarm of war is increased by a tempest; and Allan leaves his house to save (if possible) his harvest, which '*lay fit for the barn*,' from the rage of the torrents. Agnes waits at home; — night comes on; — and, as her husband returns not, her terrors momentarily increase. It is midnight when Allan arrives; pale, trembling, and his lips quivering as he urges her to instant flight; the enemy having surrounded the cottage.— In spite of Mr. Robinson's prosaic manner of relating the story, we really began to be interested in the fate of Agnes and Allan; when the author broke the bubble, by informing us,

'Alas! how vain! the fatal bullet fled
Swift as ethereal fire, and *pierced his head!*'

The Catastrophe is even worse than the beginning. T cottage is set on fire; and Agnes, with her two children, tak a flying leap into the flames!—Thus ends by far the best stor in the collection. The rest are beneath notice. To judge wh the *Translations* from Horace (which sometimes make a pag out of three lines) must be, it is only necessary to learn th Mr. Robinson calls the following trash an Epitaph 'seldo equalled for pathetic simplicity:'

"*Elizabetha vale! mea lux, mea vita quosque*
[*Quousque*, we suppose,]
"*Jungitur in Cœlis, filia chara, vale!*" p. 236.

Of this barbarous nonsense we have more than suspicions that Mr. R. himself is the author; for we conclude, by his subjoined *translation, that he fancies* he can construe it; and we are convinced that no person but the author could entertain so preposterous an imagination. Yet he professes to have taken it from a Magazine. The old adage of those "who hide know where to find," coarse as it may be, is too applicable to be omitted in this place.—We see, from the last page of this volume, that Mr. Robinson is on the point of publishing '*A Didactic Poem in two Parts !!*' We advise him, in the most earnest and friendly manner, instantly to withdraw the copy from the hands of the publisher, and to commit it to the flames. It is justice, it is kindness, to admonish him that, in order to overcome the natural dullness of a didactic poem, abilities more extraordinary are required than those which we are willing to conceive that Mr. Robinson might display in a different occupation.

Art. VIII. *General View of the Agriculture of the County of Cornwall.* Drawn up and published by Order of the Board of Agriculture and Internal Improvement. By G. B. Worgan. 8vo. pp. 192. 12s. Boards. Nicol and Son. 1811.

Though agriculture is in Cornwall a secondary object of pursuit, greater riches being torn from the bowels of the earth than can be reaped on its surface, the cultivation and improvement of the soil cannot be a matter of indifference, nor could this county be overlooked by the Board of Agriculture. It is satisfactory to find that this survey has been conducted by a person so well attested as Mr. Worgan, and that his papers have undergone revision by such respectable and well informed inhabitants as Messrs. Walker, Trist, and Penrose. These gentlemen, however, while they speak in high terms of the ability of Mr. Worgan, mention the unfortunate circumstance 'that he was *obliged* to perform the greater part of his survey during winter, by which he not only endured much hardship, but was also forced to take many things upon trust, of which, at a more favourable season, he might have been an eye-witness.' Winter surely, of all seasons, was most unfavourable to an agricultural survey; and why Mr. W. was 'obliged' to prosecute his task at such an inauspicious period, we are not told. Could he not have waited till "the sun had chased the mountain's snow, and kindly loosed the frozen soil?" This question is not answered: but the reporter is very modest in the exhibition of his own services, and candidly owns (in the preliminary observations) that 'whatever merit may appear in the following attempt to draw up a statement

e Agriculture of the county of Cornwall, must be
o the very liberal and ready communications which
ersally met with in collecting the information and
ned in them.'

mony of the communicative spirit, which the Sur-
ienced in the gentlemen of the county, redounds
eir praise; and we find, from the letter addressed
sons above mentioned to the President of the
they took the pains of carefully examining Mr. W.'s
g erasures, alterations, and additions. We may
herefore, that the Report before us is as correct as
tances of the case would admit; and we shall pro-
have done with other publications of this nature,
ome of its prominent features. Before, however,
the professed object of this work, we must tran-
teresting Introduction:

> ter of the following work requests the reader will have
> to bear in mind, that it is confined to "a general View
> ulture of Cornwall." Thus, how the Cornish till their
> liorate their soils; the seeds and plants they cultivate;
> d flocks they feed; their opinions on the rural arts, and
> ctices therein, are simply detailed. Other subjects not
> connected with agriculture, are but slightly noticed.
> t variety of mineral and fossil productions for which
> s from time immemorial been so famous, a few only are

Cornwall from a very erroneous idea and illiberal aspersion, *that they are nearly in a state of barbarism.* Instances of their civility and benevolence the Surveyor has to report from his own knowledge. Three several nights, in his tour through Cornwall, he missed his road, and was benighted, and each time, in the remotest part of the county, on gently tapping at the door of the cottager, the good man rose from his bed, left his home, and walked with him some miles, nor would leave him until he had conducted him to his place of destination. One of these good Christians, on taking leave of him, said, with a countenance that spoke his heart, "Health and a long and happy life to you, Sir, and Heaven after death." Can a peasantry who will thus rise cheerfully from their beds at midnight, take the bewildered stranger by the hand, and conduct him safely through dangers, deserve the harsh appellation of *barbarians?*'

As on former occasions we have stated the plan, or arrangement, pursued in the County-Reports, we need not repeat it here. The first chapter always contains a description of the *geographical state and circumstances* of the county surveyed; and the details given in this portion being of an instructive and amusing kind, we have uniformly been induced to copy them:

'*Situation.*—CORNWALL forms the most western and southern county of England; "its western termination is the Land's End, and lies in latitude 50° 05′ 0″ N. and longitude from London 6° 0′ 0″ W. Its most southern point is the Lizard, and extends to the latitude 49° 57′ 30″ N. and its longitude is 5° 15′ 0″ W."—*C. V. P.*

'*Boundaries.*—It is bounded by the sea on the north, west, and south, and its eastern end butts against Devonshire. The river Tamar, which runs between the two counties, may, allowing a few exceptions, be called the natural and general boundary of Cornwall towards the east, till it joins the ocean near Plymouth, after a southern course of about forty miles.

'*Shape.*—The annexed map will shew, that it is in its form, a Cornucopia.

'*Extent.*—The two most distant points of this county are, the north-eastern angle of the parish of Morwinstow, near the source of the Tamar to the east, and the promontory called the Land's-End, in the parish of Sennan, to the west, from which extremities this county measures seventy-eight miles and a half in length *, in a line nearly south-west and north-east. Its greatest breadth extending from the northern point, Morwinstow, on the north, to the Ram-head on the south, is about forty-three miles and a half; its medium breadth, between Padstow on the north, and Fowey on the south, may be about eighteen miles; and its least breadth, from Mount's Bay on the south, to Heyle river on the north, does not exceed four miles. Its computed circumference is 210 miles, and according to Mr. Martyn's Map, the whole area contains 753,484 statute acres, or 1185 square

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'* According to Martyn's Map, done from an actual survey.'

ne population fluctuating between 188 and 189,000, there
four acres to each inhabitant.—

ons.—The subjoined table shews the names and number of
ds, into which the county is divided; also, the subdivisions
ndred into parishes, with their names, and number of sta-
in each parish. It may be added, that Cornwall is situated
ese of Exeter.

e.—The general character of the climate of Cornwall, like
eninsulated situations lying far to the southward and west-
constancy as to wind and rain; and mildness as to heat
Nor is it so subject to thunder storms as some inland
e. There is a saying in Cornwall, "that it will bear a
ry week-day, and two upon a Sunday." Another usual
there cannot be too much rain before Midsummer, nor too
" It is indeed found, that when other parts of England
ought, Cornwall has seldom reason to complain.

—The cause of more frequent rains in Cornwall than in
of England, is, that for three-fourths of the year the
s from the intermediate points of the west and the south,
ping over a large tract of the Atlantic Ocean, collects and
it vast bodies of clouds, which being broken by the nar-
ike hills of the county, descend in frequent showers: but
emarked, that the rains in Cornwall, though frequent, can-
to be heavy or excessive, and perhaps the quantity may
that of other counties.

.—Cornwall being directly exposed to the whole expanse

'This local character, combined with its southern latitude, and the prevalence of the south-west winds, accounts for the mildness of the climate of Cornwall; so that balm of Gilead, hydrangea, geraniums, myrtles, and many other tender plants and shrubs, live and thrive in the open air.

'*Snow* seldom lies more than four or five days on the coast; and a skaiter may sometimes pass a winter in Cornwall, without being able to partake of his favourite amusement. A kind of languid spring prevails through the winter, which brings forth early buds and blossoms, raising the farmers' and gardeners' expectations, to be too often disappointed by blighting north-east winds, in March, April, and even sometimes so late as May.

'With respect to the effects of the climate on the human race, it may be said to be particularly healthy and genial, and there are numerous instances of longevity.

'*Surface and Scenery.*—The whole county of Cornwall, with a very few exceptions, is remarkable for inequality of surface; ascents and descents follow in rapid succession. Some of the hills are very steep, and tediously prolong a journey. The great post-roads being carried many miles together, over rugged, naked, and uncultivated heaths and moors, the traveller is impressed with a more unfavourable opinion of the county than it deserves. But he who shall traverse and examine the county of Cornwall, as minuely as the Surveyor, will imbibe different ideas of the general features of the county, which, in many parts, he will find pleasingly broken into hill and dale; some of the valleys are beautifully picturesque, and richly diversified with corn, woods, coppices, orchards, running waters, and verdant meadows.

'The admirers of sublime scenery, will be highly gratified to behold the stupendous rocks, which form the great barriers against the ocean; particularly about the Land's-End and Lizard, "filling the mind with awe, and giving rise to those solemn and sublime sensations, which elevate the heart to an *Almighty, all-creating Power.*"

'The multifarious druidical and Roman remains of *karns, rock-basons, cromlechs, circles, religious and military enclosures, dispersed over the county* *, will be highly interesting to the antiquary; whilst the agriculturist will see much to approve, and much to reprehend.

'The north and south parts of the county are divided by a ridge, or chain of hills, running from east to west like a distorted back-bone. The highest hills are Caradon, Roughtor, Brown Willy, and Hensborough; but, of the hills in Cornwall, none have either magnitude or altitude to impress upon my mind the idea of a mountain.'

We find that *Landed Property* in Cornwall is vexatiously intermixed, and that it contains no large estates; that the holding of tenants is commonly on leases for lives; that many old farm-houses built with mud-walls are to be seen; and that a regular farm-yard is a convenience not often to be found even at this day in any part of the county. The cottages are in character with the farm-houses, and are very humble dwellings:

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* For an account of these, see Borlan's Antiquities of Cornwall. *Rev.*

> 'I had occasion often, in my dreary walks, during my Survey, to take shelter in some of these miserable dwellings, and found the poor inhabitants busy in placing their bowls, crocks, and pans, to catch the waters pouring in at the roof. I am not saying, nor do I mean even to imply, that it is the general state of the cottages in the county; but were there only six in this wretched state, they are too many: the poor labouring man should at least have a dry, warm, weather-proof home to retire to, after his hard day's work, and a dry bed to lie down upon to take his rest. However, the meanest cottage generally has that great source of comfort, a garden attached to it.'

Farms are of various sizes, from the barton of three or four hundred acres down to the mere cottage-holding of three or four acres. A single instance occurred of a farm, in the hundred of West, consisting of 600 acres; and as a proof that the consolidation of farms is not always an advantage, it is stated as a fact that, on being divided into three farms, this land now grows twice its former quantity of corn, keeps twice the number of cattle, and pays upwards of twice the rent. 'It may be said,' continues the reporter, 'that there are more farms in Cornwall of from 30l. to 50l. a-year than of any other description. In the western parts the farms are very small indeed, and very high rented.'—Though Cornwall does not stand prominent to the view on the score of husbandry, some of her farming implements are worthy of notice; and the light and really elegant waggon of this county, of which a sketch is given in a wood-cut, might be found useful in every part of the island at harvest-time. The Cornish wain, on two wheels, is also a convenient vehicle. Of the implements which are peculiar to the province as a hilly country, we shall say nothing.

Under the heads of *Enclosing* (which has not been carried to any extent in this district *) and *Fencing*, the author vindicates the county-practice of making hedges with high mounds and deep ditches; the latter of which serve as open drains, while the former are an effectual protection against cattle. Instead of quick or white-thorn, a new plant is recommended:

> 'On the subject of fences, I wish to call the attention of farmers whose farms lie on the north and western shores of this island, to a shrub of which probably none have made the proper use, few have taken notice, and with which many are unacquainted.

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* Lord Grenville is the only proprietor who has obtained an act of Parliament for this purpose. He has lately inclosed a great extent of waste lands in the neighbourhood of Boconnoc.

'The plant I allude to is the tamarisk; the botanical name is *tamarix Gallica* *. It thrives rapidly when planted in situations most exposed to the stroke of the sea; forms an admirable shelter, and being of quick growth, soon comes to answer the end designed. I know a hedge of it, which, I am told, was planted about seven years ago, and the bushes (I judge by the eye) cannot now be less than from 10 to 12 feet in height, and are feathered to the very bottom. The tamarisk thrives well about the Lizard; it bears cutting perfectly well, and in exposed situations, where it might be injured if left to grow high, may be kept close and low to much advantage.

'I therefore most earnestly recommend a trial of this shrub, to persons whose farms lie so much exposed to the breach of the Western Ocean, as to be unfit for the growth of plants. Tamarisk, however, will not stand the frost, and should never be attempted in situations exposed to the severe effects of it. It is propagated by cuttings, which take root without any difficulty.'

Though tillage is preferred in this county to dairy-farming, and though a full third of the cultivated land is under the plough, the Cornish agriculturists are not very skilful in this department of husbandry. The usual course of crops, observes Mr. Worgan, is extremely reprehensible. The land is impoverished by white crops; hardly any cleansing crops are introduced but potatoes and turnips; and a clean, spirited culture of the latter is by no means common. The strictures of the Reporter, in this part of the work, may stimulate the Cornish farmers to improvement: but their practice in general cannot give any useful hints to other districts, though in a few instances it may merit notice. Perhaps the section on the *Avena Nuda*, provincially called Pilez or Pillas, may convey information to some farmers:

'The culture of this grain is confined to the western parts of Cornwall, and it is generally the farewell crop to a piece of ground that has been completely exhausted of vegetable food by preceding crops of potatoes, wheat, and oats. This plant grows something like the oat, but the straw is much finer, almost as good as hay; the grain is small, about the size of a shelled oat, and weighs as heavy as wheat per bushel; it is excellent for feeding poultry and pigs. One gallon of pilez mixed with 20 gallons of potatoes, makes a rich fattening mess for pigs. The pilez should be ground, and well mixed with potatoes; though I observed at some of the little hovels in the pilez district, that they strew the whole grain over the top of the potatoes,

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'* There are strong reasons for believing that this shrub was brought by the Monks, from Normandy to St. Michael's Mount; when that Monastery depended on Mont S. Michel: and that it has spread from thence to the Lizard, and other places in the west of Cornwall.'

the steam from which causes it to swell much, it is then mixed wit the potatoes, and the pigs eat it with avidity.

‘ In many of the eastern, southern, and north-east parts of Cornwall, they scarcely know there is such a grain in the county: this circumstance points out the utility of a more general diffusion of agricultural knowledge, which the County-Reports are well calculated to promote. This grain has been chiefly grown in black, moory, moist soils; the tillage, culture, and harvest, the same as for oats.’

Short, indeed, is the chapter on *Grass Land;* since, as we have remarked before, grazing is not a leading feature of the husbandry of this county: but we find also, from the account here given, that the little grass which is grown is in a great measure spoiled by the bad mode of hay-making. The Cornish farmer wants the lesson which Mr. W. gives him.

Nothing under the heads of *Gardens* and *Orchards, Woods, Plantations,* and *Wastes,* needs detain us; and very little in the chapter allotted to the specification of *Improvements.* The articles of manure are more numerous in Cornwall than in the inland counties; since, in addition to the common *muck* of the farmers, proverbially termed “ the mother of the meal-chest,” this province avails itself of fish, sea-sand, and ore-weed. In the vicinity of fishing-towns, farmers have an opportunity of buying the bruised and small pilchards, which being unfit for market are rejected, and called “ *caff:*” four cart-loads, o twelve bushels, are the proper quantity for an acre. This ca is buried under heaps of earth, to preserve it from dogs and hog or is spread thinly over the surface, and immediately plough in. The refuse of the pilchards in the process of curing the is also bought by the farmers as a manure. — We must n quit the chapter on Improvements without adverting to warm recommendation of Weeding, in the concluding secti The reporter considers a farm weed-free to be equivalent t farm tithe-free; and his opinion is no doubt very well found that the loss sustained by weeds is in some cases equal to rent.

We find that the beautiful Devonshire breed of cattle p vails throughout Cornwall, though only occasionally the ge ine North Devon is to be found. As in the neighbour county, the mode of making *clotted* or *clouted* cream here p vails: the process, which is stated by the reporter, consists scalding the milk in a brass-pan, and taking off the cream w it has acquired a thick consistence on the surface. By cream being thus *clouted,* the operation of butter-making considerably shortened:

> 'The cream being collected from the pans, is put into wooden bowls, which should first be rinsed with scalding, then with cold water; it is now briskly stirred round one way, with a nicely-cleaned hand, which must also have been washed in hot, then in cold water; for these alternate warm and cold ablutions of bowl and hand are not only for the sake of cleanliness, but to prevent the butter from sticking to either.
>
> 'The cream, being thus agitated, quickly assumes the consistence of butter, the milky part now readily separates, and, being poured off, the butter is washed and pressed in several cold waters; a little salt is added to season it, and then it is well beaten on a wooden trencher, untill all the milky and watery parts are entirely separated, then it is formed into prints of sixteen or eighteen ounces, for the markets.
>
> 'It is worth remarking, that this process of scalding milk is in some degree a remedy for that disagreeable taste which is occasioned by cows feeding on turnips or cabbages.'

We must not enlarge on the chapter on *Live Stock:* but concerning the sheep of Cornwall we shall transcribe Mr. W.'s general observation:

> 'Taking a general view of the subject, it may with truth be asserted, that Cornwall can now boast of as fine flocks of sheep as any county, either as to form, weight of fleece, hardiness of constitution, aptitude to fatten quickly at an early age, or flavour of mutton. With respect to their wool, it is a pretty general opinion, that the climate and soil of Cornwall is particularly favourable to the production of the finest fleeces.'

It is stated, in the short section on *Rural Economy*, that the agricultural labourers of Cornwall consist of four classes, farm-servants, parish-apprentices, day-labourers, and bargain-takers; that their most common food is barley-bread, with tea and salted fish; and that the principal articles of fuel are turf, furze, and Welsh coal.

From the chapter on *Political Economy*, we need not make any extract; and as to that which treats on *Obstacles to Improvements*, we have only to remark that the reporter, so far from coinciding with those who place Mining in this class, is inclined to regard the profits from the mines, and the trade which they create and maintain, as very beneficial to the agricultural improvement of the county. Mr. W. recommends a general inclosure-bill as a great desideratum for advancing the productiveness of the kingdom: but he is aware of the obstacles which will, in a certain place, defeat the purposes of the friends of this measure.

The remarks and observations of Mr. Worgan, which occur in this report, justify the commendations bestowed on him by those agricultural gentlemen who revised his labours.

To the volume are added, a county-map, of the usual size, and plates representing Implements, Buildings, and Stock.

ART. IX. *Practical Observations on Disorders of the Stomach,* Remarks on the Use of the Bile in promoting Digestion. 2d By George Rees, M.D. Senior Physician to the London Di sary, &c. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Lackington and Co. 1811.

IT is acknowleged by the author of this work, in his pre that the unavoidable interruptions of his professional d have prevented him from making it as perfect as he wish to be, and that very little is to be learned from other write the same subject. Now that sagacity, which we have acq from long experience in the art of criticism, has led us t gard these remarks as unfavourable prognostics. In the place, we know that the best books are generally writte those who are the most subject to professional interrupti and we also know that the stomach and its diseases have al formed a prime object of attention both with the physician the physiologist. — Dr. Rees likewise takes care, in su places, to insinuate, in rather direct terms, that his practi very extensive; and he would also wish it to be underst that he is very indifferent as to the remarks of the critic his performance. These again are bad symptoms; the betrays a consciousness that a certain share of puffing i sential to his success, and the second seems to arise fro instinctive dread of that critical examination which he tends to despise. We shall, however, on this as on every occasion, endeavour to discard all prejudice from the and to dispense that measure of praise or blame to whic author may be found justly intitled.

The observations properly commence by a description o stomach and its functions. The anatomical account pass without notice: but we are detained in the second with an attempt at hypothesis, which most persons will sider as novel, and some may regard as ingenious, but w we think is unfounded:

> 'The stomach has hitherto been generally regarded as a recep for food, and an organ secreting a certain fluid which pro digestion; but, besides this, it performs another very impo function, somewhat analogous to the heart; for as the heart tran blood, and throws it forward through the arteries to every pa the system, so there is great reason to believe the stomach diffu like manner a degree of nervous energy to every part of the particularly to the muscles and surface of the skin.'

The only proofs that we can find adduced, in aid of this extraordinary opinion, are that vomiting is sometimes brought on by cold applied to the surface, and that the stomach is generally affected previously to the eruption of small-pox. When we compare this slender basis of facts with the weighty superstructure which it is intended to support, we shall not deem it incumbent on us to enter into a very minute examination of it: but we cannot avoid favouring our readers with Dr. Rees's observations on what is generally called *taking cold*, which he says is a very objectionable expression, for that 'to take cold is in fact to take nothing at all.' He attributes the effects to the suppression of some excrementitious matter which is injurious to the system, and farther informs us that probably 'the living principle is drawn off by the greater affinity of surrounding bodies.'

Although we have now given what might be regarded as a sufficient dose of theory, yet we cannot deny our readers the edification which they will doubtless derive from Dr. Rees's notions respecting digestion. After having observed that some writers have ascribed this function to fermentation, others to trituration, and others to solution, he ventures to leave the beaten track, and to define the term thus: 'Digestion is that process, by which the vitality of the food is separated from the substance with which it is combined.' As in this country it is not generally the custom to eat food until it is deprived of life, we were somewhat startled at this definition: but on advancing a few pages farther, our apprehensions were in some degree calmed by the following explanation; 'let us return to the doctrine of vitality, and if we suffer ourselves to consider it as a substance *sui generis* entering into the combination of different bodies similar to the matter of heat, we give freedom to our minds, and afford at once an opportunity of enquiring into the laws by which this principle is regulated.' The discovery that *life* is a peculiar substance, or a specific kind of matter, is an extremely important and valuable acquisition; since it is not improbable that some method will be invented, of disuniting it from the other particles with which it is combined, and exhibiting it in a separate state; — and moreover, the search after the universal medicine, which was probably composed chiefly of the *extract of life*, may not now be regarded as so hopeless and unmeaning a pursuit as in modern times we have been generally disposed to consider it.

After these examples of Dr. Rees's talent at hypothesis, we proceed to the practical part of his work, to which the other is to be considered as merely introductory. Since, however, the observations are not delivered in a very methodical manner, so in our review of them we shall be under the necessity of adopting the same desultory style, and must be satisfied with laying before our readers those insulated facts or opinions which appear the most interesting. —Putrid food, we are informed, disagrees with the stomach, 'not from any peculiar acrimony, or from any sedative, or narcotic principle, but from its power of robbing the stomach of its vitality;' and in the same way we are to account for the action of all poisonous substances. 'Thus,' adds the author, with a becoming self-satisfaction, 'the mighty mystery with regard to most poisonous substances may be unravelled, and the more it is examined, the more will the evidence of facts be found in favour of it.'

We must not pass over Dr. Rees's opinion of the agency of the bile in digestion; which it is the more necessary to notice, because he fairly and candidly tells his readers, in order to put them on their guard, that he shall prove his ideas to be true to the satisfaction of all, 'whose understandings are not blockaded by prejudice.' He thinks that, in health, bile is always present in the stomach; that it is the stimulus to hunger, and is the principal cause of digestion; that what are called *bilious diseases* arise from the defect, not the excess, of bile; that whiteness of the tongue depends on bile not being in sufficient quantity in the stomach; and that the act of vomiting, which, in bilious cases, has been supposed to clear the stomach of bile, operates by bringing into it the proper portion of bile which was previously deficient. The proofs of this doctrine are chiefly rested on an observation of Boerhaave, who asserts that, in gluttons and in ravenous animals, the biliary ducts have been found to open immediately into the stomach; on a case mentioned by Vesalius, who discovered a similar formation in "a most voracious robber," (who no doubt devoured his victims, after he had robbed them;) and on a remark of Galen, that people who are subject to have the bile ascend into the stomach are always extremely voracious. Such facts must no doubt throw down all the *blockades* of *prejudice*; and every one will be ready to exclaim with the author, 'can any argument be more apposite, can any experiment be more satisfactory than this? With such facts in our possession, am I not warranted in asserting, that bile in the stomach is a very powerful stimulus to hunger?'

Flatulence is supposed not to proceed 'from the extrication of air from any substance taken into the stomach, but to be secreted from the stomach itself;' and Dr. Rees afterward hints at some connection 'at present very unintelligble' between respiration and digestion. Flatulence is also either the cause or the effect of amenorrhœa, a complaint which the author zealously co

ten

tends is not injurious to the constitution by producing plethora, but in which the mischief is occasioned by something noxious being retained in the system, which the discharge ought to have carried off. This 'something noxious' appears to produce flatulence, and therefore, in order to cure amenorrhœa, we must endeavour to remove the flatulence; viz. to remove the symptom, in order to destroy the primary disease.

Dr. R. is naturally led to treat of the effects produced on the stomach by alcohol, in its different modifications; and we are informed that this substance, 'chemically examined, is principally hydrogen,' and that, as hydrogen possesses a powerful affinity for oxyen, 'whether in the human body or not,' it follows that spirituous liquors create their mischievous effects by robbing the blood of its oxygen. Before we can admit this explanation, we should be glad to know on what authority its fundamental position rests; because, according to the most approved experiments with which we are acquainted, hydrogen composes no more that about 15 per cent. of alcohol, instead of forming its principal constituent. Alcohol, however, is not the substance which proves so injurious to the drinkers of malt liquor; which contains 'a mucilaginous substance, a narcotic principle, very different in its operation from wine or spirits:' so that, in this case, we suppose, the oxygen is not taken out of the system: but perhaps an affinity may subsist between this narcotic principle and the vitality of the stomach, since narcotics are considered as nearly allied to poisons.

We afterward meet with a number of remarks, strictly practical in their nature, on pains of the stomach, and on the different causes from which they proceed. Some of the observations are not without a certain degree of value: but they are delivered in so desultory a manner, and are so mixed with baser matter, that few persons will take the trouble of separating the metal from the rubbish in which it is embedded. We shall, however, make one quotation from this part of the work, containing the characteristics by which we may recognize rheumatism of the stomach:

'When the rheumatism happens to be seated in the region of the stomach, it may be distinguished by the following symptoms:

'1st. The pain is not so violent and spasmodic, but more permanent than pain in the stomach itself generally is.

'2d. It is not so circumscribed, but extends to the side, sometimes to the back, and is affected by changes of temperature.

'3d. The pain is increased by the action of particular muscles, by raising the arm or inclining to one side, which has not in general an influence on pains in the stomach.

'4th. The appetite is not impaired; neither is there much flatulence, which more or less will be found to attend complaints of the stomach.

'5th. The countenance retains its ordinary appearance of health; and, Lastly, on attending to the cause and manner of its approach.'

Our remarks on this work will (we hope) enable our readers to form a correct judgment of its merits, and to determine as to the justness of the prognostics which we unwillingly drew from a perusal of the preface. It gives us no pleasure to pass an unfavourable opinion on the literary labours of any respectable professional writer, but our critical duty is imperious, and paramount to all other considerations.

Art. X. *Sermons*, by the Rev. Thomas Jervis. 8vo. pp. 451. 10s. 6d. boards. Johnson and Co. 1811.

In spite of the authorities adduced by Mr. Jervis in his preface, we very much doubt the fact that a taste for sermon-reading is a leading feature of the present age: but we have no hesitation in admitting that, if the generality of sermons were successfully written on the model of those which *he* has presented to the public, it would be a proof of bad taste, as well as of declining virtue, not to be attracted by them. The sensible and reflecting part of mankind, and all persons who are sollicitous of improving their minds by moral culture, or of regulating their hearts and guiding their lives by the purest and most amiable principles, will follow this preacher with much pleasure through his several disquisitions; the aim of which is to call into action all that is beautiful in virtue and ennobling in religion. Mr. Jervis's object is practical; and therefore he does not endeavour to form the *man of creeds*, but the *man of conduct*. To combine benevolence with piety, and urbanity with purity, is the lesson which he inculcates; and hence all those who copied his delineation of Christian virtue would be truly great and estimable characters; while such as followed the preacher in his estimate of life, and adapted his maxims under its several vicissitudes, would be more happy than most of those who seek pleasure on the vulgar system. No idle declamation against the vanity of the world degrade Mr. Jervis's oratory. His pictures of sublunary pageantry are adduced to prove that all our best happiness is seated in the mind; and hence, like Juvenal, after his lecture on the vanity of human wishes, inculcates the importance and the soul-exhilarating property of virtue, which, being in our own power, raises us superior external accidents:

> " *Monstro quod ipse tibi possis dare. Semita certe*
> *Tranquillæ per virtutem patet unica vitæ.*"

It will be evident to the reader of these sermons, that Mr. J. has an elegant and poetical mind. His quotations are happily introduced; his style is rather chaste than elevated; and if he has a good delivery, we should imagine that a genteel audience would be highly gratified by his public services. The attention which he has paid to the improvement and right direction of young persons is highly commendable. To them he exhibits religion and virtue in their best attractions; and all ingenuous youth must feel the force of the truth, as he has placed it before them.

After such an encomium, it may be supposed that we ought to enter into a full examination of the volume before us: but we cannot spare room for an article of such length, as the execution of such a task would require. We must therefore content ourselves with mentioning some of the subjects of these discourses, and with subjoining a specimen or two of Mr. Jervis's manner of preaching. His topics are principally—The truth and excellence of the Christian religion—The light of the Gospel—Religious Knowlege the foundation of religious principle—Education—The value of an unblemished reputation—The house of mourning—The glory of God in the works of creation—Genuine religion not speculative but practical—The danger of prevailing custom and example—Moral beauty—Benevolence—Courtesy the law of social life—The consolations of friendship—The prayer of Agar.—Consolatory views of Providence amid the vicissitudes of life—The vanity of the world,—Reflections on the great journey of human life, &c.

Having illustrated the beauty of virtue by examples taken from heathen antiquity, and from the O. and N. Testaments, the Preacher concludes by presenting the great example of the author and finisher of our faith:

'To those instances of the beauty of virtue which have been adduced, we might add one example, which surpasses all the rest. How lovely was the life of Jesus! How amiable and kind his condescension to our frail condition! His benevolence was without a parallel. His love was stronger than death. In his transcendent example we see virtue, as it were, embodied in the human shape. Here indeed we see, in that well-known and highly figurative phraseology, "God manifest in the flesh," those godlike virtues which are essential to the nature of the Deity, exemplified in the life of his holy and beloved servant.

'From the characters here pointed out, as patterns of the moral beauty and loveliness of virtue, we may form an idea of the meaning of the expression in the text, "whatsoever things are lovely."

'It is lovely—not to be impatient, restless and disconcerted by every untoward accident, or depressed by disappointment and misfor-

to be patient, resigned, and contented in every condition
Providence may place us. It is lovely—not to be rapa-
tous, and devoted to our own selfish interests in all things—
sult the welfare of others, and to do all we can to promote
lovely—not to avail ourselves of the power we may pos-
ss, of acting according to our own arbitrary pleasure or
will, without regard to the inclinations or the feelings of
whom we are connected—but, by all the means in our
render their lives easy, comfortable, and happy. It is
t to indulge moroseness of temper, to give a loose to tur-
irascible passions, or to harbour sentiments of malice,
revenge—but to exercise the virtues of gentleness and
to be kindly affectioned one towards another, each esteem-
better than himself. Lovely is the ornament of a meek
spirit, which is, in the sight of God, of great price.'

liscourse on the consolations of Friendship, Mr. Jervis
ated as Cicero, on this engaging subject; and the nature
rties of friendship are well delineated: but, as this de-
s rather too long for our purpose, we shall in its stead
ssage from the sermon on Courtesy.

eligion of Jesus is the most liberal institution in the world.
ool we are taught the most refined lessons of courtesy and
lessons which are conducive to the welfare of the com-
large, as well as to the individual comfort and happiness of
sons. We are here taught, that no man should live to

selves to finish the picture, to add to it the fine touches, the inexpressible graces of perfection.

'That christian courtesy, which is to be the subject of our present meditations, is a duty of the second class; but not, on that account, the less important; for, if we neglect those relative duties which we owe to our fellow-creatures, our virtue must be incomplete; our conduct can never be consistent, never conformable to the precepts and the example of that consummate teacher of benevolence and social virtue, who has taught us not only to "love God with all our hearts," but also, "to love our neighbour as ourselves." And this is a principle upon the cultivation of which the regulation, good order, and happiness of all society does very much depend.'

The discourse on the Vanity of the World thus concludes:

'From the attacks of this inexorable foe [Death], where shall we find a refuge amidst the vanities of the world? Where shall we seek a remedy against the evils he inflicts? The world itself is but a vast cemetery, or receptacle for the multitude of his victims. Riches cannot ransom, nor valour rescue out of his hand. No human power can check his career. No glittering display of wealth, no badge of worldly honour and distinction, no ensigns of titled grandeur and ambition, can overawe this all-subduing conqueror. To every human being he says—Here, O man! is the end of thy earthly career. "Hitherto shalt thou go, and no further." Whatever are thy passions, projects, or pursuits, thy merits or demerits, thy virtues or failings, thy joys or sorrows, thy pleasures or thy pains, this is the termination of thy toils, the utmost limit of thy labours. Here thy ardour will be extinguished; here thy ambition will cease; here thy glory will be buried in the dust.

"But who"—says the enterprizing, the gallant and the brave, the accomplished, but unfortunate, Sir Walter Raleigh—"who believes this, till death tells it us? It is death alone that can suddenly make man to know himself. O eloquent, just, and mighty death! Whom none could advise, thou hast persuaded: what none hath dared, thou hast done: and, whom all the world hath flattered, thou only hast cast out of the world, and despised. Thou hast drawn together all the far-fetched greatness, all the pride, cruelty, and ambition of man, and hast covered it all with these two narrow words—HIC JACET!"

'There is nothing which can disarm death of his terrors, and enable us to triumph over this last enemy of our nature, but the firm belief and persuasion of the grand doctrine of christianity—a Resurrection from the dead. This doctrine opens to the christian the cheering hope of immortal life and blessedness. This consolatory hope, this glorious light of the gospel, is vouchsafed to man in his passage through this land of darkness, this region of sorrow and of death.

'And with this hope to cheer him, this light to guide him through the vale of life—say, what has man to fear? His virtuous hope, sanctioned and elevated by the discoveries of Christianity, has set him far above all the vanities of this world? which he is taught to consider only as the passage to another. Whenever, therefore, he is summoned to leave it, and about to be discharged from the post of duty here, he betrays no unmanly despondency, no vain terrors, no superstitious fears, no distrust of the wisdom and benignity of Providence. Prepared to obey the call of his maker, he awaits the hour of his dismission with solemnity and composure of spirit; and at length, with holy fortitude, humble resignation, and triumphant hope, receives the high and heavenly mandate to depart.'

When Mr. Jervis observes, that 'the points essential to salvation are but few, and that the main and fundamental parts of faith and practice may be easily comprehended,' his orthodoxy may be called in question: but all persons must allow that proficients in his school would be practical christians of the very best sort.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For FEBRUARY, 1812.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 11. *The Christian Code;* or a regular Digest of Christ's Dispensation. By an old Graduate of Cambridge. 4to. pp. 352. 1l. 1s. Boards. Lackington and Co.

We are told in the preface that 'the person who has arranged this Digest *from the words* of the N. T., was a scholar of St. John's College in Cambridge, and commenced Batchelor of Arts there, in the year 1758, with a design in due time to enter into Holy Orders; but that afterwards, on a deliberate examination of the Articles of the English Church, finding some parts of them, in his judgment, somewhat exceptionable, he declined the sacred function, and sat down in Pembrokeshire, contented with a small patrimony, till Providence condescended to augment it.'

From this peroration, we are forced to regard the author as a conscientious man, and the view of the Christian dispensation which he has here elaborately displayed is no doubt conformable to his own sentiments; but many who look at it will think that his digest has not been well digested; and if he be not orthodox enough for some, he will be abundantly too orthodox for others. Words not in the original Christian code are to be found in this professed transcript of it; thus in the preface, p. 3. the author tells us that 'in the beginning of God's ways, before all other creatures, he generated Christ's Human Spirit to be united with his Eternal Divine Logos, and *form a Society within himself.*' A writer who so manifestly departs from the language of Scripture, at the very commencement of his undertaking, is by no means qualified for the task of accurately exhibiting 'the Christian Code.' Where, from Genesis to Revelation, does he read of the Divine Being *forming a society within himself?* Alas! under the pretext of publishing divine truth, men protrude their own crude notions of the incomprehensible Godhead!

Art. 12. *Select Homilies of the Church of England*, appointed to be read in Churches in the Time of Queen Elizabeth, and no less suitable for Villages and Families. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Williams. 1811.

Though we entirely agree with the present Bishop of Lincoln, that the *Homilies*, (a word derived from the Greek ὁμιλὶη, *cœtus*, a *multitude*, and signifying discourses caclulated for the common people,) " when compared with the age in which they were written, may be considered as very *extraordinary compositions*;" and though we may add that they were admirably calculated to meet the exigencies of the Church at that period: yet so many preferable discourses on the doctrines and duties of the Christian religion have been produced since the reign of Queen Elizabeth, that it is not necessary to put those homilies into the hands of private Christians of the present day. As evidence of the doctrines held by the authors, they may properly be matters of reference: but it must not be contended that the sentiments of Cranmer, Latimer, Parker, and Juel, are now of any authority in determining matters of faith.

The history of these homily-sermons is curious; and, as exhibiting the then state of the Church with respect to preachers, it merits notice:

'The Homilies consisted originally of two parts; the one set forth in the reign of King Edward VI.; the other in that of Queen Elizabeth. The design of them was, that they might be read in the Churches which were not supplied with sound Protestant preachers, and they are described, in Article 35 of the Church of England as containing " godly and wholesome doctrine, necessary for *these times*," to which many of them have particular allusion, as those on the peril of idolatry—repairing churches—prayer in a known tongue, &c.—

'With respect to their authors, the First Book is said to have been drawn up by Archbishop Cranmer, assisted by Latimer, who, on being liberated from the Tower, on the accession of King Edward, accepted an invitation from the former to assist him in composing these Homilies. The Second Book, published early in the reign of Elizabeth, by Archbishop Parker, and the Bishops his colleagues, was principally drawn up, as is supposed, by the excellent Bishop Juel. So soon as they were ready, a royal visitation was undertaken by a committee of laymen and divines, divided into circuits, five in each, and one copy given to every parish priest throughout the kingdom.'

It is the opinion of the editor, that these antiquated discourses 'are not *at all unsuitable* to *these* times, when the doctrines which they inculcate are branded with novelty and fanaticism.' We have already expressed a different sentiment, not on the score of doctrine, but on the ground of our possessing many superior compositions of the same class. The editor, indeed, in order to give them the appearance of modern sermons, has affixed a text to each of them, and has changed some obsolete words and phrases. Now if it be obvious that still farther liberties ought to have been taken, (of which the editor is aware,) in order to accommodate them to modern taste; and if it be more easy to write two entire new sermons than completely to modernize one of these old homilies; we must regard the labour of the editor in thus providing for churches, villages, and families in the year 1811, as very much thrown away. Even villagers would now smile at being exhorted 'to *chew the cud*' of God's word, (p. 21.) at being represented as 'crab-trees that can bring forth no apples,' (p. 27.) and at being told (p. 225.) that, 'the Holy Ghost labours *to beat* repentance *into men's heads*,' &c.

Art. 13. *Twenty-four Select Discourses*, from the Works of eminent Divines of the Church of England, and of others never before published. By a Curate in the Archdeaconry of Coventry, Master of Arts of the University of Cambridge. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

It is not very common to see a volume published by subscription, when the name of the author or editor is suppressed; and the reason of this singularity, in the present instance, we cannot conjecture. The practical discourses here selected are taken from the works of Bishops Bull, Porteus, and Horne, and from those of Hubbard, Weston, Farquhar, Hervey, James, Jortin, &c.; and the editor claims no other merit in thus re-offering them to the public, than that which appertains to their selection, and to the earnest wish of promoting the cause of piety and virtue by their extended circulation.

Art. 14. *Sketches of Sentiment on several important Theological Subjects;* to which is added, an Address to Christians of various Denominations. By James Clarke. 12mo. pp. 104. Williams. 1811.

In a strain of very superfluous humility, the author has taken the trouble of assuring his readers that 'he does not arrogate to himself infallibility;' yet, without this very necessary qualification, he boldly undertakes to reconcile Trinitarians and Unitarians! His labour, we suspect, will prove to be quite abortive, if he can hit on no other method than that of vamping up the old scheme of Sabellius. Who will take Mr. Clarke's *ipse dixit*, when he lays it down, with all the dogmatism of His Holiness, that 'we are to believe in, and pray to God, as *Father*, *Son*, and *Holy Spirit*, separate descriptions and manifestations of the *one only living and true God?*'

Mr. C.'s 'Address to Christians' was no doubt very well meant: but, when he observes that 'he can never suffer another to think for *him*,' can he suppose that others will suffer him to think for *them*? He may represent Election and Baptism as 'non essentials of belief:' but he must be the vainest of men to imagine, for a moment, that his representation will silence controversy. We must do him the justice to suppose that he wishes the peace of the Church; though he must be very ignorant of the nature of man and of the state of the world if he dreams of reconciling Churchmen and Dissenters, Quakers and Methodists, by the means of a few desultory pages on Ecclesiastical Establishments and Church-Government.

Art. 15. *St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans paraphrased;* with Introductory Remarks. 12mo. 2s. Richardson. 1811.

The general drift of the Apostle Paul, in his Epistle to the Romans, is neatly and satisfactorily explained in this paraphrase: but all the difficulties which that Epistle presents are not obviated: with these, however, we shall not now meddle. It is very evident, as this writer observes, 'that the great cause of schism, in the apostolic times, was an unreasonable veneration for the law of Moses;—that the Jews were particularly inveterate against those converts from Heathenism who refused submission to the Mosaic rites; and that against those who had deserted them their rage was phrensy itself.' The author farther intimates that it was the belief of the Roman Christians, who were of Jewish origin, that the truths of Christianity were to be superinduced on Judaism; and that, as it required some address to attack this rooted conviction, the Apostle was obliged to conceal his design: whence arise the obscurities of this epistle. Though St. Paul does not expressly say that Judaism is abrogated by Christianity, his argument throughout tends to this point; for if "admission into the kingdom of heaven is not to be obtained by meat and drink, by attention to clean and unclean animals, but by a good life," it clearly follows that an attention to the Mosaic ritual was of no moment.

Every gloss in this paraphrase will not be universally admitted, as that for instance in chap. x. 14.: but on the whole the leading object of the Apostle is clearly displayed, and the reasoning is less embarrassed by the parenthetic digressions being thrown into notes at the end. The Paraphrase is much more concise than that of Dr. Taylor, and in this view preferable.

POLITICS.

Art. 16. *A Letter addressed to the Earl of Liverpool,* His Majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonial Department. To which are added, as an Appendix, several interesting public Documents respecting the Island of Trinidad. By J. Whitehall, Esq., Advocate. 8vo. pp. 26. Trinidad.

Though Trinidad has been a British colony for more than ten years, our government has not yet succeeded in adjusting either its legal or its political constitution; and the mixed character of the population, of whom a majority are Spanish and French, has prevented ministers from permitting them to manage their concerns, as in our own islands, by a representative assembly. Notice to this effect was given, in very explicit terms, above a year ago, in a letter from Lord Liverpool to the Governor, General Hislop, expressing that "it was a *point determined* that no independent internal legislature should be established in Trinidad; that His Majesty reserved to himself the power of legislation, but would delegate it, in some degree, to the Governor, as his representative; that an Island-Council might be formed, but that the members must be named by the Governor, and consider themselves as constituting a *Council of advice, not of controul.*" In regard to the other great point of discussion, the expediency of introducing British law into the Colony, his Lordship declares himself as yet unable to give a decided opinion. "It

under the serious consideration of government, but
essarily extensive and complicated."
's Letter is an appeal to the Noble Secretary against
overnment in both respects; — in delaying the intro-
h laws, and in refusing the appointment of a repre-
y. 'Why,' he asks, 'should Trinidad be less fa-
islation than the small island of Tortola? A country
itish arms becomes a dominion of the King in right
is therefore, says Lord Mansfield, necessarily sub-
slature, the Parliament of Great Britain.' "The
ritain," says Mr. Eswick, "may hold a conquered
being, under military law, but in the instant that
tate is, by treaty of peace, or otherwise, ceded t
at Britain, in that instant it imbibes the spirit of th
it naturalized; it is assimilated to the Government
ll those powers with which the governing power o
d Commons is invested by the Constitution." "I f
third luminary of the law, "receives the inhabitant s
ion, he cannot reserve to himself legislative powe r
quoting this assemblage of legal authorities, M .
ours to impeach the validity of the negative dete
y our Cabinet, and to demand, on the part of th e
be heard in Parliament. He ascribes the condu t
influence of secret reporters, and says that 'muc h
one by those who sally forth in cloaks of darkness .'
f the island also, at least that part of them who d e-
on of the British Constitution, are disposed to con -
unfavourable impression made on the minds of m i-
haracter of the inhabitants in general, through r e-
ceeding from the Colony; impressions which seem o
nion that nothing but a despotic government wou d
m.'
complaints, no mention is made of Judge Smit h,

debtors, throughout the whole of the colonies. By bringing their affairs, when in a hopeless state, to a crisis, it would save them many years of anxious and unprofitable labour; while, under better circumstances and prospects, nothing would more powerfully tend to induce the creditor at home to make liberal advances, than the command which he would continue to possess over his funds.

Without meaning to express any opinion on the propriety of refusing a representative body to Trinidad, we cannot avoid noticing a passage in an official paper of General Hislop, which seems to justify the doubts entertained of the fitness of the inhabitants to govern themselves. It is this; "I have resided in Trinidad as governor almost eight years, a period which from its commencement to the present day has been subjected to the most untoward scenes of difficulty and perplexity."

AGRICULTURE.

Art. 17. *An Account of the Introduction of Merino Sheep into the different States of Europe, and at the Cape of Good Hope;* describing the actual State of these Animals, the number of them, the different Modes of Treatment which they experience, and the Advantages which they render to Agriculture, Manufactures, and Commerce. From the French of C. P. Lasteyrie. By Benjamin Thompson, with Notes by the Translator. 8vo. pp. 245. 7s. 6d. Boards. Harding. 1810.

Those English sheep-farmers, who are in the habit of looking into books on the subject of rural affairs, will feel themselves obliged to Mr. Thompson for this version of M. Lasteyrie's treatise on the Merino race of sheep, which we noticed in the xlth Volume of our New Series, p. 513. The notes by the Translator are few, but manifest good sense: we much question, however, whether Mr. T.'s remark, in the dedication, on the *quality* of the mutton of the Merino breed, be not too strongly expressed. The carcase of the Merino will not bear a comparison with the generality of good English mutton; and Dr. Parry's endeavour to improve it by crosses is truly judicious. By crossing with the Arabian race of horses, we obtain a breed of these animals superior to that of the pure Arabian; and by pursuing the same system with the Merino sheep, whose carcases are of no estimation in Spain, we may improve the mutton without any deterioration of the wool; thus attaining the double object of a good fleece on a good carcase: but Englishmen are too well fed, to be brought to subscribe to the doctrine that true Merino sheep yield good mutton.—This translation appears to be well executed.

Art. 18. *Cheap and profitable Manure,* &c. Plain and Easy directions for preparing, and Method of using an excellent Compost for manuring Arable, Meadow, and Pasture Lands, in general, in the cheapest manner, from which greater productions of Grain, &c. will be obtained than from any other Manure, at equal Expence. Discovered solely, by John Morley, of Blickling, in the County of Norfolk, &c. To which is added, his much approved Plan of clamping Muck, whereby a considerable Expence is saved to the Farmer; and also the Manner of improving the Growth of

Underwoods in the most luxuriant way. The second edition, revised and corrected by the Author, with additional Observations on various kinds of Manure not in general Use in this and the adjoining Counties; and Remarks on Cultivation of Turnips, improving Grazing Lands, &c. &c. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Scatcherd and Co. &c.

Puffing is now become as common in the farming as in the auctioneering line, though in the former it is less excusable than in the latter. Mr. Morley makes a wonderful parade with his cheap and profitable Manure, which is obtained by ploughing up the headlands, carting muck on them, adding to this a quantity of lime, and then turning over and mixing the whole together. This manure is extolled as 'preferable to all others;' by the help of it, he says, 'wheat will grow higher by four inches than wheat cultivated in the common way;' and, marvellous to relate, while this compost nourishes all useful plants, 'it *destroys all pernicious* vegetation.'—By clamping muck, the author means no more than making ridges or hills on the headlands, five feet high and three yards wide, with layers of muck; and then covering the whole with mould, so that the hill or clamp shall resemble the roof of a house. When the muck is rotten, the whole is turned over like a common compost-hill, the dung and the mould being mixed together. This is Mr. Morley's *much approved* plan of clamping.—His observations on lime are perfectly ludicrous.—The remarks on various manures are good, but want novelty.—The plan of improving the growth of underwood occupies three pages, and consists merely in laying down young shoots from old stumps to fill up vacancies, in the manner practised by nursery-men in making stools of a plant which they want to multiply.—In the concluding hints to graziers, Mr. M. recommends them so to rail out ponds of standing water, that cattle may drink it without making it muddy by trampling in it.

BULLION-QUESTION.

Art. 19. *Observations on Money as the Medium of Commerce,* showing the present circulating Medium of this Country to be defective in those Requisites which a Medium of Commerce ought to possess, and pointing out in what Manner the Defect may be remedied; and also the real Effect that a greater or less quantity of circulating Medium has on the Country; together with Remarks on the present State of the Nation; to which are subjoined a few practical Inferences. By James Cruickshank, A.M. of Marischal College, Aberdeen. 8vo. pp. 137. 3s. 6d. Richardson.

Of all the singular performances ushered into the world since the Bullion-controversy began, this of Mr. Cruickshank appears to us the most remarkable. Our readers will recollect that we have already characterized him (Vol. lxiv. p. 443.) as one of the hottest disputants on the Distillery-question: but his excentricities on that occasion were insignificant compared to those of the present more deliberate and comprehensive production. 'He will prove,' he says, 'that there can be no such thing as an increase of taxes, and th taxes, instead of being a burden, or in any degree hurtful to a country, are a great cause of increasing its wealth and prosperity.' We, for our part, had hitherto been apprehensive that a rise in the price of commodities was a great public misfortune: but this Aberdonian A. M. stoutly maintains that 'it is productive of most beneficial effects to the country; it betters the condition of the poor, increases the conveniences of the people, of course also the wealth of the country, and as all this is consequent on an augmentation of taxes, the latter must of course be a public benefit.' In regard to the national debt, which, to our plain understandings, has always appeared a serious concern, Mr. Cruickshank is equally decided. 'It is most absurd in my opinion,' he exclaims (p. 98.) 'to say that the nation is in debt. Who would not laugh at the idea of a person saying he was in debt to himself? The national debt is no burden to the public, it only occasions an addition to be made to the nominal amount of taxes. It is beneficial, moreover, to the public in two points of view. It secures the attachment of those to whom it is due to the government of the country; and as it is traded on as a mercantile commodity, we may consider it an addition to our trading capital.' Some cautious persons may reply, "If the price of our commodities becomes higher and higher, other nations will step into the supply of our foreign markets, and our foreign merchants will be ruined." To all arguments in this style, Mr. Cruickshank gives a most pointed negative. 'No part of our taxes,' he says (page 102.) 'is paid by our merchants; no addition is made to the wealth of the country by foreign commerce; and I deny that our foreign commerce can be hurt by the enhancement of our labour or commodities; for however much these may rise, other nations are not thereby in the least degree enabled to supply the foreign markets with articles at a cheaper rate than we can afford them.' Mr. Spence had gone, in the opinion of most of us, quite far enough in denying that foreign commerce was productive of advantage: but Mr. Cruickshank leaves his brother pamphleteer altogether in the back-ground, and declares (p. 118.) that he can shew that 'the wealth of the nation would increase faster if our foreign commerce was put a stop to; and that the people are made less able to pay the taxes by reason of the encouragement that is given to foreign commerce.' No wonder that the promulgator of such extraordinary doctrines should deem 'the generality of the public wholly ignorant of the real nature of the case,' and should pronounce that former writers 'had taken too limited a view of the subject. Certain it is (he adds) that this subject has hitherto been improperly treated; but I flatter myself with being able to explain it to them in the manner in which it ought to be explained; and if I am successful in accomplishing this, I shall certainly thereby have performed a most important piece of service to the public. It is impossible that this subject can be properly explained by any person, unless he takes the most *comprehensive view of it that possibly can be taken.*'

We are now to exhibit the plan which this hopeful writer condescends to propose, after having dealt around so abundant a share of

censure

[illegible] to the labour of others. Our metallic currency, being obtained in exchange for an equivalent stock of articles, or productions, or the representation of value in a foreign country: paper-money, on the other hand, costs us no such price. So far Mr. Cruickshank will obtain general assent, since nobody will deny that paper is a much cheaper medium than coin; but he will have fewer converts to his next argument (p. 23.), that 'Bank of England-notes are the more eligible because government owes the bank eighteen millions, a debt which gives the public the greatest security.' He makes no objection to the magnitude of the Bank of England-circulation, except in as far as it exceeds their advance to government; as if the *quantum* of currency were not a point altogether distinct from the amount of a loan. Like Mr. Law, Mr. Cruickshank would impose no limits on the extent of our circulating medium: all that he wants is security; and it is only from a sense of deficiency in that respect that he would call on our chartered banks (p. 32.) to deposit stock in the hands of the attorney-general; or that he would subject private bankers to that plan which it is the object of his publication to recommend, and to the development of which he now proceeds. His proposition is that country-bankers should withdraw the whole of their notes from circulation; that a quantity of new notes, at least equal, should be issued and made current by public authority; and that government should ascertain the tolls and dues payable on roads, bridges, canals, harbours, and other public works throughout the kingdom, for the purpose of vesting authority in certain commissioners to purchase the right to as many of these as would amount to forty millions, the computed quantity of country bank-notes. The next step would be to empower these commissioners to stamp notes, certifying that the "bearer hereof has value to the amount of 1l. 5l. 10l. or 20l. (as the case might be) on the turnpike roads, &c. of this kingdom." With these notes, the commissioners would make payment of the agreed price of the turnpike roads; a transaction which would send the notes into general circulation. The tolls, continuing to be levied, would form a fund of about two millions annually accruing to the commissioners, and applicable by them to an accumulation; which, in less than twenty years, would produce a sum equal to the whole forty millions, and enable government to relieve the public altogether from the burden of these tolls and dues. The beauty of the project does not end here. New notes might be issued, and expended in making new roads, bridges, canals, &c. *ad infinitum*, all on the desirable plan of being free of toll in twenty years.

We need hardly detain our readers by a serious refutation of this visionary project: yet Mr. Cruickshank is perfectly confident of its success, and treats all objections as insignificant. Land-banks, he admits, have hitherto failed, but how? By undertaking to pay in specie which they did not possess. — Metallic currency, we may naturally conclude, appears quite vulgar and antiquated in the eyes of so sanguine a calculator. 'What stupidity, what infatuation,' he exclaims, 'in the public, to be so much bigotted in favour of an article which they daily lose by using. How blind to their own interest when they insist on using coin as a medium of commerce. How much service would that man do to the public, who would bring about the enactment of a law obliging every guinea and shilling in the country to be immediately sent out of it.'—The Bullion-Committee are of opinion that we should aim at raising the value of our currency by a partial decrease of its quantity: but this, says Mr. Cruickshank, 'would be the certain ruin of the country. It would ruin all the agriculturists in the kingdom, and they are the prop, the support of the nation. It would be the means of making the people indolent and inactive.—The House of Commons will do well to take care what measures they adopt; let them be aware how they proceed. The man, I say, whoever he is, that endeavours to persuade that House, that an increase in the quantity of circulating medium is hurtful to the country, is either wholly ignorant of the matter, or he is an enemy to his country.' After so positive a denunciation, we need not be surprized to find this vehement advocate declare in his summing up, 'that there can be no real increase in the amount of taxes, and that a tax of one hundred millions a-year is as easily paid as a single million, provided there is a sufficiency of circulating medium to pay it in: that taxes, instead of being a burden, are highly for the good of the country, and ought to be increased: that government cannot be too profuse in its expenditure, provided all the taxes levied are expended on its own population.'

The *finale* of this extraordinary performance is worthy of the preceding part, and consists of the repetition of a conditional eulogium by the author on himself. He observes with great self complacency: 'I flatter myself that this subject has now been explained in the manner in which it ought to be. If I have been successful in accomplishing this, I shall not consider my time or trouble lost, as I shall certainly thereby have performed a *most important piece of service to the public.*'

Art. 20. *A Plain Enquiry into the Nature, Value, and Operation of Coin and Paper-Money;* and the Methods whereby Nations acquire and lose the precious Metals; pointing out the Causes of the present Scarcity of legitimate Coin, and the only Method of restoring it to permanent Circulation. By Peter Pennyless, Gent. 8vo. pp. 62. 2s. 6d. Whitmore.

Although a large portion of common-place is mixed up in this pamphlet, it will be found to contain, on the whole, much useful matter. The author begins by explaining, that every commodity is to be valued in proportion to the labour bestowed on it; a proposition which, however clear to the political economist, is by no means familiar to the bulk of mankind. The business of mining in America, like that of banking in this country, is supposed greatly to surpass other branches of trade in the ratio of its profit; the public not taking time to compare all circumstances, and to consider that the application of equal capital and labour would, in all probability, be productive of an equal result in other occupations. As a farther example, we may mention that our merchants have had to learn, by experience dearly bought, that trade with the golden regions of Spanish America may be less profitable than with the rugged but better cultivated shores of New England. The precious metals, says the author before us, have, no doubt, acquired their distinction from their peculiar aptitude to preserve in a small compass the value of a quantity of labour, as well as from their durability and facility of decomposition.—Proceeding to the history of coinage in England, he explains that silver was long our standard of value; and that gold continued to be regarded, like other commodities, according to its relation in value to silver. For a century past, gold has taken the place of silver as our standard; and since there cannot be two common measures of invariable value, silver has been considered as a commodity, and has been liable to certain, though till of late immaterial, fluctuations. From gold and silver the author directs his attention to bank-notes, and treats our paper-system, in its present state, with great severity. In animadverting on the plausible words by which offensive measures are smoothed for the public ear, he ridicules the term "restriction" as applied to the bank-stoppage. 'Restrictions from payment,' he adds, 'are hardly usual or necessary where there is any thing to pay with. A spur might not, indeed, answer the purpose; but it would, at least, be as good as a bridle.' In comparing the different result of an investment of money made twenty years ago in land, or in the stocks, he computes that, without taking into account the fall of stocks by war, the advantage of an investment in land would have been at least double. He does not, however, like other oppositionists to the Bank, go so far as to doubt the existence of a balance of payments from one nation to another: but we cannot compliment him on a knowlege of the principles of trade, and still less on his manner of communicating the share of information which he does possess. His style is often diffuse, and sometimes obscure; an obscurity which is increased, or perhaps created, by the careless manner in which the pamphlet is printed. The point on which he is most successful, that on which he drops his monotony and assumes a tone of animation, is in exhibiting the evils of war. 'War (he says, p. 55.) is the most active and dreadful bane of commercial nations. The first steps towards it plant in them the seeds of decay; and if ever they become fond of war, or that war is become a necessary form of their existence, they are making rapid strides towards dissolution. The wars of this reign have been unnatural, impolitic, and ruinous in the extreme. They have originated in a spirit hostile to the genius and character of the British nation; having for their constant object the depression of liberty and the elevation of despotism. The efficient cause of the present scarcity of bullion, as well as of the vast shoals of paper-money which devastate the country, is war.'

The enactment of a resumption of cash-payments at the end o two years, as recommended by the Bullion-Committee, is not, i this author's opinion, the fit measure to be adopted. 'The public, he says, 'stand in need of no more promises, and this, like all hal measures, would be ineffectual. The Bank has acted like an in prudent banker who has expended the money of his customers merchandise for which there is no demand; or has lent it to insolve people; or, at least, to such people as stand in need of a long let of licence. We must have recourse to the plain, honest metho resorted to, or which ought to be resorted to, in the like case

priva

private life. We must leave off gambling and fighting, and betake ourselves to work. Government must repay the Bank her advance, and the restriction may at last be removed; coin will then make its appearance, and paper will be fairly driven out of the field. But to effect all this, the obstacles which prevent the influx of bullion must be removed. These obstacles all tenaciously inhere in one great *substratum*, and that is war. We must look this formidable enemy fairly in the face. No fabrication of light silver crown pieces; no divisions or subdivisions of the miserable pittance of bullion we have still left; no ringing changes on denominations, particularly on paper-denominations; no multiplication of them will answer the purpose. We must abandon war, and extinguish, or effectually curb the system and the causes which engender war. Industry will then seek its natural channels; commerce may perhaps again flourish, and gold and silver once more revisit the land.' Here Mr. Pennyless brings his miscellaneous production to a close; and those of his readers who, like us, have waded through the whole of it, will be tempted to exclaim that he would have saved them much *tedium*, "*si sic omnia dixisset.*"

POETRY.

Art. 21. *The Fall of Cambria*, in Twenty-four Books. By Joseph Cottle. Second Edition. 2 Vols. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

In our Number for November 1808, we gave a sufficient account of the contents of this Blank Epic, and expressed *our doubts* of its popularity. In truth, although now much altered, and professedly amended, it still possesses no attraction for any readers but those whom duty compels to toil through all the worthless nonsense that is published. The *twenty-fifth* book, indeed, of the Fall of Cambria, is now omitted: we *hinted* at its superfluity in the critique above cited: but, alas! twenty-four books still remain, and nine *new* lyrical pieces are added, by way of compensation for the curtailment in question. We present our readers with a brief specimen of these additions; and we have little farther to remark, except that Mr. Cottle's Preface abounds in nice distinctions, which do not appear to us to make any very decided difference between the real faults of his composition, and those which he thinks may erroneously be attributed to it. This Preface is also *new*, and, together with the nine lyrical pieces, is published separately, *gratis*, for the benefit of the purchasers of the first edition of the Poem. This is a laudable practice.

' Caradoc's Mad Song.

' Before he leaped from a precipice into the ocean (introduced in the eighteenth book).

' Like a watch-tower, I stand on the verge of the sea,
Whilst the tempest arous'd in his vehemence raves.
The deep tones of ocean, how fearful they be,
When the storm wraps in darkness the mountainous waves!

' What transports are these! Like myself, in despair
The white-headed billows dash madly the shore:
I love the rude tumult, the rocking of air,
And music to me is this perilous roar.

Behold!

The red thunderbolt ranges the sky,
rides a Spirit! Ere beheld, he is past:
e in thine anger the bolts as they fly,
ish me an atom upwhirl'd on the blast.'—
ively *frightened* from proceeding. " It is too, [illegible]

efects of Mr. Cottle's style, which we censured four
to have " grown with his growth, and strengthened
h." At all events, few indeed of the errors of the
ks have disappeared.

m of thine, oh Warwick, falls like fate —
lbot! thou art wounded! staggering back
!'—Book the 7th.

here is nothing but *falling* throughout the volume.
f Cambria, and the *fall* of its author.
lyn's Address to Snowdon:

e cried, thou *granite lord* supreme!'—Book the 8th.
, *with his besom*, sweeps the plain!'—Ibid.
e whole host, joy, *like a cordial, ran!*'—Book 11th.

lord, '*the besom*,' and '*the cordial*,' are inimitable.
amples of this superior command of poetical expres-
ve done:

——— ' The battle-axe
imer's stout helm—shivers. *He falls*—
l before the Cambrian's potency!'—Book 10

ıanner, to the immortal '*Fall of Cambria*,' and its perishable uthor?

> "Here lies an author—pray forgive
> The work that fed his pride—
> Long after death he hoped to live,
> And long before it, died."

ırt. 22. *Squibs and Crackers*, serious, comical, and tender. By Jasper Smallshot. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Harding. 1812.

The title of this book is *taking*, but the execution of it will sappoint the most indulgent lover of laughter that ever resolved ›be pleased. 'Squibs and Crackers' are both stupid and vulgar; ıd as much disgrace as can attach to an impotent trifle of this kind rtainly belongs to the worthless volume before us. We take a ecimen from the centre:

> '*Omnibus lassis*—A Tale of Learning.'
>
> 'Tom Tickler was a pedagogue,
> Of temper good, tho' he could flog
> Those under his tuition,
> Who knew not *qui* from *quæ* or *quod*,
> Which to confound, indeed seems odd,
> Without *much* erudition.'

This is the first stanza of the 'Tale of Learning.' The last is ollows:—

> 'I know myself a little Latin,
> Tho' not, like you, *it* am I pat in;—
> But come, the bottle passes;—
> So here I drink with all my heart,
> The *dark*, the *fair*, the *neat*, the *smart*,
> In short—*omnibus lasses!*

sper Smallshot! "thou art a very silly fellow."

. 23. *Translations from ancient Irish MSS.*, and other Poems. y James Martin. Crown 8vo. 7s. Boards. Sherwood and o. 1811.

If from the dark wilderness of by-gone years, there can be ued any of the humbler symphonies of Erin's lovely, long-silent , let none expect they shall be arranged with what the Sons of Green Isle never studied, regularity, and attention to time or e!'—So much for the prose of this author. We sincerely hope neither the style of this prose, nor that of the following verse, ıdeed a native of Ireland, because we have the highest respect hat noble country.

'How dull, how dark, my *hours* roll,' &c. &c.

'Rule Britannia,' 'Pope Joan,' and 'fill t'other cup,' &c.

> 'You know how hard 'tis to get money,
> And how it goes if one's not *conny*,' &c.
>
> '*Won't thou*, Apollo, Pan, *won't thou*,
> For once place laurels on my brow?' &c.

We close with a *chef d'œuvre.*

'To a malignant old Woman.'

'Contemptible dotard, how boisterously roll,
On thy bile-colour'd phiz, the black waves of thy soul!
Lapsus linguæ—beg pardon—thy soul did I say—
In thee dwells there a soul—thou poor poison-fraught clay,' &

To this terrific tirade, the poet subjoins a note, unrivalled in t annals of *notification.*

'Old ladies not being always *book-larn'd*, her *excellent* ladys is here informed, that we *schollards*, by *lapsus linguæ*, mean a s of the tongue.'

Χρη σιγᾷν, ἢ κρεισσονα σιγης λεγειν·

Art. 24. *The Capital!* A Satirical and Sentimental Poem. De cated to the Earl of Stanhope. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Rickman.

The Capital! is by no means a *capital poem.* Its object reminds us Johnson's *London*, and by the comparison into what a vapid nothi does it sink! Satire consists in boldness of conception and in vigoro execution; in a striking and pointed delineation of men and manne but here none of these qualities appear. London is a fertile subje at all times, for the satiric muse: but to sketch this metropolis the British Empire as it ought to be sketched requires a masterly p far superior to that which is wielded on the present occasion. Let couplet or two be adduced in justification of our censure:

'Corrupted town! too deep involv'd to mend,
'Like Paris late, and likely such thy end.'

'Two ranks alone remain, the greedy great
Have swallowed up the intermediate.'

'Woe marks the hour of guilt, if e'en with kings,
The path of vice but leads to virtue's leavings.'

'Scotsmen, e'en at Hell's gate, persist in hope,
While Erin's sons desponding urge the rope.'

At the sons of Caledonia this writer points all the satire of wh he is master: but he manages his thunder so aukwardly, that we p rather the *satirizer* than the *satirized.*

Art. 25. *Somerset*, a Poem. By F. Webb. 4to. pp. 42. Bentley. 18

Descriptive blank verse is an unpromising species of entertainm to the reader, however amusing it may have been to the writer:—b moreover, Mr. F. Webb seems to be of that class of outrageous p triots, who, in the estimate of beautiful scenery, prefer Somerset Swisserland, and Norton Sub-Hamdon (the author's residence) St. Dizier sur Marne. With these two recommendations, poet that palls, and patriotism that provokes, Mr. F. Webb advance very powerful claim to our attention:—but, alas! that attention diverted by a third source of delight, even more engaging than t others:—we mean, a vapid versification of the stalest mythologic details from the Classical Dictionary; and a *re*-introduction of t reader to the happily-forgotten friends of his boyhood, Jason, a Phryxus, and Helle. We select a passage which will palpably disp the extraordinary powers of exciting somnolency, which such an union of descriptive blank verse with scraps of learning never fails to possess:

> ‘From horn Ammonian CERES pours her stores
> Of golden grain—VERTUMNUS clothes the hills
> With various pasture; and the bleating tribe
> Stud them all over as with living gems,
> The lib’ral gift of Nature—ALBION’s pride.
> With pride she well may boast, for her’s the FLEECE
> On fragrant thymy hills and flowery vales,
> By hundred-handed Labour, changeful Trade,
> Truly converted into FLEECE of GOLD;
> More precious, more substantial, than of old
> The far-fam’d one of COLCHIS, first enrich’d
> With the Thessalian RAM, which, Antients say,
> The air-borne PHRYXUS from BŒOTIA brought,
> And landed on the ever-blooming banks
> Water’d by rapid PHASIS, crystal stream!
> Which to reclaim the ardent JASON rose,
> And fir’d the Sons of Greece with th’ emprise.’

This, we conceive, will suffice for the *poetry* of the author. For his *patriotism* we refer our readers to his judicious praise of Mr. Lewis Goldsmith’s “Authentic History of the Cabinet of St. Cloud;” (pages 6 and 7.)—for his notion of music, to page 28, where he illustrates the power of *music* by the effect of a Parthian yell and an Indian war-whoop;—and for his theory of Latin quantity, to that hexameter line in his motto, which begins

Hortiqŭe, Sylvæque—

After all this, Mr. F. Webb seems to be a highly respectable denizen of Somerset; and we are very sorry to be forced to pass such severe strictures on his Poem. His short preface is not only modest, but pious. Why are not modesty and piety content without the publication of descriptive blank verse?

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 26. *Microcosmography; or a Piece of the World discovered;* in Essays and Characters. By John Earle, D.D. of Christ Church and Merton Colleges, Oxford, and Bishop of Salisbury. A new Edition, to which are added, Notes, and an Appendix, by Philip Bliss, Fellow of St. John’s College, Oxford. Crown 8vo. 10s. 6d. boards. Harding. 1811.

We have here the eleventh edition* of a work, which, (paradoxical as it may seem) even in this æra of republication, and of especial fondness for old English literature, is but partially known. We recommend, however, the perusal of it to every class of readers; since it is in truth a storehouse of wit and wisdom. The quaintness of the style, (it was originally printed in 1628,) although observable enough, yet is not

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* We are not sure that we should not say the twelfth.

And say he is not well: that will suffice
To force a river from the public eyes.
Or, if he must be dead, oh! let the news
Speak in astonish'd whispers: let it use
Some phrase without a voice, and be so told,
As if the labouring sense griev'd to unfold
Its doubtfull woe. Could not the public zeal
Conquer the Fates, and save your's? Did the dart
Of death, without a preface, pierce your heart?
Welcome, sad weeds—but he that mourns for thee,
Must bring an eye that can weep elegy.'

The remainder is still more forced: but the lines on Sir John Burroughs contain some couplets sufficiently natural in point of thought; and which remind us of the most dearly-bought victory that England ever gained.

'LINES ON SIR JOHN BURROUGHS, KILLED BY A BULLET AT REEZ *.

[*From a MS. in the Bodleian.*]—(*Rawl. Poet.* 142.)

'Why did we thus expose thee? what's now all
That island to requite thy funeral?
Though thousand French in murder'd heaps do lie,
It may revenge, it cannot satisfy:
We must bewail our conquest when we see
Our price too dear to buy a victory.'—

'Not rashly valiant, nor yet fearful wise.
His flame had counsel, and his fury, eyes.
Not struck in courage at the drum's proud beat,
Or made fierce only by the trumpet's heat—
When e'en pale hearts above their pitch do fly,
And for a while do mad it valiantly.
His rage was temper'd well, no fear could daunt
His reason, his cold blood was valiant.'

Art. 27. *An Analysis of Mr. Locke's Essay concerning Human Understanding.* By Edward Oliver, D.D. formerly Fellow of Sydney Sussex College in Cambridge. 4to. pp. 49. Rivingtons.

This analysis, considered critically, is incomplete. The first book is omitted; which might have been spared half a century ago, before the Scotch writers had called the attention of the metaphysician to this simple question—whether the mind of man be indeed like a blank sheet of paper, and *solely* furnished by ideas from the employment of the senses on the objects of the world without?—but if, according to the modified doctrines of Reid's philosophy, as explained by Stewart, the senses only furnish the *occasions* on which the mind exerts

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'* For an account of the unsuccessful expedition to the Isle of Ré, under the command of the Duke of Buckingham, see Carte's *History of England,* vol. iv. page 176, folio, *Lond.* 1755. Sir John Burroughs, a General of considerable renown, who possessed the chief confidence of the Duke, fell in an endeavour to reconnoitre the works of the enemy, Aug. 1627.'

exerts its original powers, then it becomes a matter of some co quence to distinguish Locke's successful ridicule of the Carte doctrine of innate ideas, from his total denial (for it is *in fact* altho not uniformly denied,) of *any* instinctive principles, or rather fu mental laws, of human belief. For this reason, we disapprove Oliver's omission of the first book of the Essay in his Analysis: we bear willing testimony to the clearness and precision with w he has abstracted the remaining books. This is an epitome, i word, that may be very useful to the inexperienced reader of Loc and in the Universities, where the Essay forms a part of public mination, we know not one of the numerous abridgments which is n calculated to fill the place of a "*Memoria Technica Metaphysica*.

In the notes, we meet with one or two objectionable opinions. must especially reprobate the unphilosophical notion of resolvin our intellectual pleasures and pains, all the phænomena of ideas memory, imagination, judgment, volition, *and also muscular mo* into the principle of association. 'This,' says our daring simpl of principles, '*must* be regarded as established *in fact*.'—*Dii b* how facts fly about in modern metaphysics. We shall have a be opportunity of recurring to this curious and entertaining divisio the inductive science of mind. Meanwhile, (except as herein exc ed,) we recommend Dr. Oliver's Analysis to the attention of academical candidate for a summary acquaintance with Locke's c brated Essay.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We have not seen the object of the communication of E. S.: as on all such occasions, we beg to decline any anonymous off this kind.

Our thanks are due to *Cato* for his friendly and complime sentiments; but he will excuse us from saying more, in place.

Y. Z. is informed that the work concerning which he inquire be noticed in our next Review.

☞ The APPENDIX to the last Volume of the M. R. was publ with the Number for January, on the first of February: contai as usual, a variety of articles in FOREIGN LITERATURE, with th *neral Title*, *Table of Contents*, and *Index*, for the Volume.

In that Appendix, P. 549. *note*, for 'Stromatis,' r. *Stromat* P. 480. l. 7. for 'sections,' r. *section*.—P. 507. l. 12. from put a full stop after '*precious*.'—*Index*, article *Shakspeare*, '*being*' before '*bought*.'

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THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For MARCH, 1812.

Art. I. *Lachesis Lapponica*, or a Tour in Lapland, now first published from the original Manuscript Journal of the celebrated Linnæus; by James Edward Smith, M.D. F.R.S. &c. President of the Linnæan Society. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. White and Cochrane. 1811.

We need scarcely apprize any of our botanical readers that this journal, in its original form, came into the hands of the learned editor with the rest of the Linnéan collection; and some of them may, perhaps, be aware of the tardy and fruitless attempt of the King of Sweden to recover the manuscript, on the two-fold pretext that the journey which it records was undertaken at the public expence, and that the objects which it illustrates were of more importance to the author's countrymen than to any other people. This latter part of the plea, it is obvious, can constitute no *right*; and, though the fact alleged in the former be undeniable, the conclusion which is drawn from it must, in the present case, be regarded as inadmissible, because the illustrious traveller had prepared a separate narrative, presented it to the Royal Academy of Upsal, and received from that learned body one hundred and twelve silver dollars, (or about *ten pounds sterling*,) as a compensation for the trouble, fatigues, and perils of his many pilgrimage. In this kingdom, and in the present times, the offer of such a recompense for the accomplishment of an arduous peregrination of between four and five thousand miles, among the wastes of the north, would be regarded as a ridiculous insult: but we should recollect that this apparent pittance, in 1732, and in the north of Europe, might be equivalent to a hundred guineas at least, and that a traveller's daily expences in a savage country are generally very trifling. It is true, also, that the young naturalist enjoyed a far more noble and exquisite reward in the gratification of his ardent curiosity, and in the contemplation of regions which few of the human race had ventured to explore. At all events, he had performed his public task, and honourably discharged his public obligations;

and no corporation or government was intitled to claim th possession of his private memoranda. In consequence of hi son's death, his collections and library were offered for sale so that public bodies and individuals were alike free to contend for the purchase. By outbidding the offers of foreigners, the Swedish Prince might have retained these treasures for the benefit of his subjects, and have performed an act of generosity to the surviving members of the family; at the same time, we are inclined to believe that the world at large would not hav greatly profited by the transaction. In the custody of the President of the Linnéan Society, none of the venerable spoils have been suffered to repose as useless lumber; and although the interesting document, of which the publication suggested thes reflections, is only now rendered intelligible to the English reader, Dr. Smith must not be defrauded of the tribute of praise which he has so well earned by the extent of his care, activity, and perseverance.

'To place the authority of this collection, (he says,) as far as possible, out of the reach of accident, he has made it his chief object to extend any information to be derived from it, not only to his own countrymen, but to his fellow-labourers in every quarter of the globe. The Banksian herbarium was, in the course of seven months, compared with that of Linnæus throughout, to their mutual advantage, by a copious interchange, not only of information, but of specimens Plants or insects were for many years continually sent from France Switzerland, Italy, Spain, Germany, and even Sweden, as well a from America, for comparison with the authentic originals named b the hand of Linnæus. The time and labour devoted to this tas have been richly compensated, by the acquisition of various noveltie and of much instruction, as well as by the pleasure of so extensive a intercourse with persons occupied in the same favourite and delightf pursuit, and by the acknowledgements with which most of the have overpaid the trouble.

'The manuscripts of Linnæus were no less freely consulted; b great was our disappointment to find the *Lachesis Lapponica* writt in Swedish. For a long time therefore it remained unexplored. A length Mr. Charles Troilius, a young gentleman in the mercant line, resident in London, undertook the task of translating it. T manuscript proved to be the identical journal written on the sp during the tour, which certainly rendered it the more interesting; b the difficulty of decyphering it proved from that very circumstan unexpectedly great. The bulk of the composition is Swedish, b so intermixed with Latin, even in half sentences, that the translat not being much acquainted with this language, found it necessa to leave frequent blanks, giving a literal version only of what was able to read. The whole abounds also with frequent cyphe and abbreviations, sometimes referring to the publications or opinio of the day, and intended as memorandums for subsequent consid-ation.'

Again,

'To render the translation fit for the public view, the editor found himself under the necessity of writing the whole over; but in doing this, though often obliged to supply the forms of whole sentences, of which only hints or cyphers exist in the manuscript, he has been careful to give as literal a translation of the rest as the materials would allow. This principle ever kept in view, and the difficulty of the undertaking, which, small as the book is, has taken up much of his time for seven years past, must apologize for any inelegancies of composition. Yet in many parts the original displays a natural and striking eloquence, of which the translation may possibly fall short. Such passages, when they occurred, repaid the labour and perplexity of studying for hours to decypher some obscure mark, or some ill-written Swedish or Latin word, which the original translator had given up in despair.

'The sketches with a pen, that occur plentifully in the manuscript, are not the least curious part of the whole. They are often necessary to explain descriptive passages in the work, and about sixty of them have been selected to illustrate the book. These have been cut in wood, with such admirable precision, that every stroke of the pen, even the most casual, is retained, and it is but justice to the artist, Mr. R. T. Austin, to record his name. Several plants, but rudely sketched in this manuscript, being more completely represented in the *Flora Lapponica*, it was thought unnecessary to publish such figures, except a few, for the sake of curiosity, or of particular illustration.'

The Doctor's marginal notes, though neither numerous nor protracted, are extremely valuable; and the only editorial omission, with which he seems to be chargeable, is that of a map of his author's route.

The artless preamble to the diary will extort a smile from those who are familiar with the splendid appointments of modern ease and refinement:

'Having been appointed by the Royal Academy of Sciences to travel through Lapland, for the purpose of investigating the three kingdoms of nature in that country, I prepared my wearing apparel and other necessaries for the journey as follows:

'My clothes consisted of a light coat of Westgothland linsey-woolsey cloth, without folds, lined with red shalloon, having small cuffs and collar of shag; leather breeches; a round wig; a green leather cap, and a pair of half boots. I carried a small leather bag, half an ell in length, but somewhat less in breadth, furnished on one side with hooks and eyes, so that it could be opened and shut at pleasure. This bag contained one shirt; two pair of false sleeves; two half shirts; an ink-stand, pen-case, microscope, and spying-glass; a gauze cap to protect me occasionally from the gnats; a comb; my journal, and a parcel of paper stitched together for drying plants, both in folio; my manuscript Ornithology, *Flora Uplandica*, and *Characteres generici*. I wore a hanger at my side, and

carried a small fowling-piece, as well as an octangular stick, g
ated for the purpose of measuring. My pocket-book contai
passport from the Governor of Upsal; and a recommendation
the Academy.'

This particular enumeration of the articles of his per
equipment, in conjunction with a subsequent passag
which he talks of his *readers*, makes us demur to the op
of his learned editor, that Linné composed this journal s
for his own use. We can readily believe, however, that it
often hastily and imperfectly indited, and that occurre
were rapidly noted in the form of disjointed materials, in
contemplation of a more detailed and connected narrative.

Accoutred as we have just mentioned, the illustrious tr
took his departure from Upsal on the 12th of May 1732, v
within half a day of twenty-five years of age. Scarcely ha
passed the northern gate of the city, when he commence
observations, taking note of the water-*byssus*, the long le
colts, the *lichen nivalis*, &c.: thus registering his remar
the order in which they happened to be suggested by surro
ing objects. Many pages are necessarily occupied with
names and descriptions of plants, which we shall not par
larize, because their aspects and habitations are already
tinctly commemorated in the *Flora Lapponica*, which is
edited by the worthy inheritor of the Linnéan collect
The geological notices are vague and scanty; and ma
the details relative to the rude and simple domestic economy o
inhabitants refer to the rough outlines of accompanying fig
Yet, after these deductions from the *extractable* matter o
present volumes, a great variety of interesting passages cl
on our attention, from which, in our cursory report, we
select only a few.

In the forests about Ockstad, the author observed innu
able diminutive firs, with all their branches proceeding as
a common centre,' like those of a palm, and as if the to
been cut off; an affection which he denominates *Pinus* p
and which he attributes to the unfavourable quality of the

At the town of Gefle, in Gestrickland, he remarked th
apothecary's shop in the province; no other, and not e
physician, being to be found in any place farther northwa

Uninhabited mountains compose by far the greatest po
of Helsingland; and small dwelling-houses are to be seen
in the valleys, which are more marshy than cultivated.
withstanding these unpromising circumstances, the pe
especially the men, appeared to be larger in stature than in
places. 'I inquired (says the journalist) whether the chi
are kept longer at the breast than is usual with us, and
answ

answered in the affirmative. They are allowed that nourishment more than twice as long as in other places. I have a notion that Adam and Eve were giants, and that mankind from one generation to another, owing to poverty and other causes, have diminished in size. Hence perhaps the diminutive stature of the Laplanders.' The editor acknowleges the obscurity of this passage in the original: but, if it be rendered with any degree of fidelity, it is no very flattering specimen of the speculative talents of the celebrated naturalist. It is, indeed, reasonable to infer, from the few attempts at generalizing which are scattered through his journal, that Linné, at least at the period in which it was written, was more eminently qualified for observing facts than for investigating their causes, or framing an hypothesis.

We were surprized to find that, under the south side of a steep hill, to the north of Dingersjö, the inhabitants had planted hop-grounds; and still more to learn that these plantations were in a thriving condition.

The province of Angermanland is represented as consisting of steep hills, which it is not always safe to descend on horseback. In one of them is a cavern which excited the eager curiosity of the intrepid traveller, though with much difficulty he could prevail on two men to shew him the way.

> 'We climbed the rocks, creeping on our hands and knees, and often slipping back again; we had no sooner advanced a little, than all our labour was lost by a retrograde motion. Sometimes we caught hold of bushes, sometimes of small projecting stones. Had they failed us, which was very likely to have been the case, our lives might have paid for it. I was following one of the men in climbing a steep rock; but, seeing the other had better success, I endeavoured to overtake him. I had but just left my former situation, when a large mass of rock broke loose from a spot which my late guide had just passed, and fell exactly where I had been, with such force that it struck fire as it went. If I had not providentially changed my route, nobody would ever have heard of me more. Shortly afterward, another fragment came tumbling down. I am not sure that the man did not roll it down on purpose. At length, quite spent with toil, we reached the object of our pursuit, which is a cavity in the middle of the mountain.'

This cavity, after all, did not repay the trouble and fatigue of arriving at its entrance.

Here, as in some of the other northern provinces, the inhabitants make broad cakes of barley, flour, and *chaff*, the usual proportions being one part of the former, and *three* of the latter: but, when they wish to have it of a superior quality, and the country produces enough of barley, they mix only two portions of chaff. Another favourite article of their diet is an inspissated preparation of sour whey, obtained by repeatedly pouring lukewarm fresh whey on that which was previously soured, and keeping the mixture till it becomes so glutinous that it may be drawn out from one side of the house to the other.

West-Bothnia is tolerably level, but comprizes large tracts of sand and moss, and consequently is far from fertile, producing potatoes not larger than poppy-heads, and peas which never attain to maturity.—At Umoea, Linné waited on Baron Grundell, the Governor, who imparted to him some memoranda relative to the natural history of the country, and informed him that *the clay in the sand-hills increases and decreases with the moon.*

'I took leave of Umoea. The weather was rainy, and continued so during the whole day. I turned out of the main road to the left, my design being to visit Lycksele Lapmark. By this means I missed the advantage I had hitherto had at the regular post-houses, of commanding a horse whenever I pleased; which is no small convenience to a stranger travelling in Sweden. It now became necessary for me to entreat in the most submissive manner when I stood in need of this useful animal. The road grew more and more narrow and bad, so that my horse went stumbling along, at almost every step, among stones, at the hazard of my life. My path was so narrow and intricate, along so many by-ways, that nothing human could have followed my track. In this dreary wilderness I began to feel very solitary, and to long earnestly for a companion.'

At Jamtboht, where he arrived in the evening, Linné supped on the breast of a cock of the wood, which had been shot and dressed in the course of the *preceding year.*

'Its aspect was not very inviting, and I imagined the flavour would not be much better; but in this respect I was mistaken. The taste proved delicious, and I wondered at the ignorance of those who, having more fowls than they know how to dispose of, suffer many of them to be spoiled, as often happens at Stockholm. I found with pleasure that these poor Laplanders know better than some of their more opulent neighbours, how to employ the good things which God has bestowed upon them. After the breast is plucked, separated from the other parts of the bird, and cleaned, a gash is cut longitudinally on each side of the breast-bone, quite through to the bottom, an two others parallel to it, a little further off, so that the inside of th flesh is laid open in order that it may be thoroughly dressed. Th whole is first salted with fine salt for several days. Afterwards small quantity of flour is strewed on the underside to prevent its stic ing, and then it is put into an oven to be gradually dried. Wh done, it is hung up in the roof of the house to be kept till wante where it would continue perfectly good even for three years, if were necessary to preserve it so long.'

The next day's progress was not less dreary, comfortless, an hazardous; the road being wretched beyond description, th

sadd

saddle unstuffed, and a rope tied to the horse's under jaw supplying the place of a bridle. In the course of navigating the western branch of the river Umoea, in a small boat, three shelves, forming as many cascades very near to each other, would have arrested the movement of ordinary travellers, but offered no *let or hindrance* in the present instance. 'My companion, (says the author,) after committing all my property to my own care, laid his knapsack on his back, and, turning the boat bottom upwards, placed the two oars longitudinally, so as to cross the seats. These rested on his arms as he carried the boat over his head, and thus he scampered away over hills and valleys, so that the devil himself could not have come up with him.'

The next passage, which will naturally invite the attention of the inquisitive reader, refers to the caparison of the rein-deer: but it is of considerable length, and cannot be readily apprehended without recourse to the engravings.

Mention is made of a woman at Lycksele who was supposed to labour under a *brood of frogs* in her stomach; and her case suggests that of another, who was cured by doses of *nux vomica.* The sagacious editor, in a note, here glances at his author's credulity.

Of the Lycksele Laplanders, we are informed that they are fond of brandy; that they sleep quite naked on skins of rein-deer, spred over a layer of branches of dwarf birch, with similar skins thrown over the body; that, when fresh water cannot be procured, they have recourse to *warm sea-water,* which torments them with griping pains; that they perpetually change their abode, live in tents, follow a pastoral life, &c. From the contemplation of the rude simplicity of their manners, we are abruptly dragged into a "*slough of despond.*"

> 'We had next to pass a marshy tract, almost entirely under water, for the course of a mile, nor is it easy to conceive the difficulties of the undertaking. At every step we were knee-deep in water; and if we thought to find a sure footing on some grassy tuft, it proved treacherous, and only sunk us lower. Sometimes we came where no bottom was to be felt, and were obliged to measure back our weary steps. Our half boots were filled with the coldest water, as the frost, in some places, still remained in the ground. Had our sufferings been inflicted as a capital punishment, they would, even in that case, have been cruel; what then had we to complain of? I wished I had never undertaken my journey, for all the elements seemed adverse. It rained and *blowed* hard upon us. I wondered that I escaped with life, though certainly not without excessive fatigue and loss of strength.
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> 'After having thus for a long time gone in pursuit of my new Lapland guide, we reposed ourselves about six o'clock in the morning, wrung the water out of our clothes, and dried our weary limbs, while

'The learned curate began his conversation with remarks on the clouds in this country, setting forth how they strike the mountains as they pass, carrying away stones, trees and cattle. I ventured to suggest that such accidents were rather to be attributed to the force of the wind, for that the clouds could not of themselves lift, or carry away, any thing. He laughed at me, saying surely I had never seen any clouds. For my part, it seemed to me that he could have never been any where but in the clouds. I replied, that whenever the weather is foggy I walk in clouds, and when the fog is condensed, and no longer supported in the air, it immediately rains beneath my feet. At all such reasoning, being above his comprehension, he only laughed with a sardonic smile. Still less was he satisfied with my explanation how watery bubbles may be lifted up into the air, as he told me the clouds were solid bodies. On my denying this, he reinforced his assertion with a text of scripture, silencing me by authority, and then laughing at my ignorance. He next condescended to inform me that after rain a phlegm is always to be found on the mountains, where the clouds have touched them. Upon my replying that this phlegm is a vegetable called *Nostoc*, I was, like St. Paul, judged to be mad, and that too much learning had turned my brain. This philosopher, who was as fully persuaded of his own complete knowledge of nature, as Sturmius was of being able to fly by means of hollow globes, was pleased to be very facetious at my expense. At length he graciously advised me to pay some regard to the opinions of people skilled in these abstruse matters, and not, at my return home, to expose myself by publishing such absurd and preposterous opinions as I had now advanced.

'The other, the pedagogue, lamented that people should bestow so much attention upon temporal vanities, and consequently, alas! neglect their spiritual good*; and he remarked that many a man had been ruined by too great application to study.

'Both these wise men concurred in one thing. They could not conceal their wonder that the Royal Academy should expressly have appointed a mere student for the purposes for which I was sent, without considering that there were already as competent men resident in the country, who would have undertaken the business. They declared they would either of them have been ready to accept of the charge. In my opinion, however, they would but have exhibited a fresh illustration of the proverb of the ass and the lyre.'

At Kiomitz, the Lapland Alps rose to view; and the corn, which had been sown on the 25th and 26th of May, was, on the 2d of July, sufficiently long to be laid in some places by the rain. The birch-trees were thick, but low, the frost checking their upward growth. These depressed trees afford little sap, but their wood is compact, and they live to a great age.

Among the remedies used by the natives, and very briefly noticed in this part of the work, the *Toule* (which the Japanese

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'* I have known one instance of such bigotry, or rather hypocrisy, out of Lapland.'

would

ll *Moxa*) is made of a fine fungus which grows on the
l which is always gathered from the south side of the
this they apply to the part affected a piece as large as
ting fire to it with a birch-twig, and letting it burn
away. This operation, being repeated two or three
oduces a sore which will often keep open for six
fterward, and it must not be closed till it heals spon-
. 'It is the universal medicine of the Laplanders,
be called their little physician.' The fat which
om toasted cheese, made of the milk of the rein-deer,
with great success on chilblains. Castor and bears'
lso very popular drugs, and are administered on al-
ccasions.

young and aspiring botanist will participate in the
which drew from the author the following paragraph:

> afternoon I took leave of Hyttan, and, at the distance of
> n thence, arrived at the mountain of *Wallavari* (or Hwal-
> quarter of a mile [Swedish] in height. When I reached
> tain, I seemed entering on a new world; and when I
> led it, I scarcely knew whether I was in Asia or Africa,
> tuation, and every one of the plants, being equally strange
> ndeed, I was now, for the first time, upon the Alps!
> untains encompassed me on every side. I walked in snow,
> l been the severest winter. All the rare plants that I had

our feet like sand. Every now and then we came to a river taking its course under the snowy crust, which in some parts had yielded to the force of the currents, and the sides of each chasm exhibited many snowy strata one above another. Here the mountain streams began to take their course westward, a sign of our having reached Norwegian Lapland. The delightful tracts of vegetation, which had hitherto been so agreeably interspersed among the alpine snows, were now no longer to be seen. No charming flowers were here scattered under our feet. The whole country was one dazzling snowy waste. The cold east wind quickened our steps, and obliged us to protect our hands that we might escape chilblains. I was glad to put on an additional coat. As we proceeded across the north side of this mountain, we were often so violently driven along by the force of the wind, that we were taken off our feet, and rolled a considerable way down the hill. This once happened to me in so dangerous a place, that, after rolling to the distance of a gunshot, I arrived near the brink of a precipice, and thus my part in the drama had very nearly come to an end. The rain, which fell in torrents on all sides, froze on our shoes and backs into a crust of ice. This journey would have been long and tiresome enough without any such additional inconvenience. At length, after having travelled betwixt three and four miles, the mountains appeared before us, bare of snow though only sterile rocks, and between them we caught a view of the western ocean. The only bird I had seen in this icy tract, was what the Laplanders call *Pago* (*Charadrius Hiaticula.*) Its breast is black, throat white, feet orange.

'Having thus traversed the alps, we arrived about noon upon their bold and precipitous limits to the westward. The ample forests spread out beneath us looked like fine green fields, the loftiest trees appearing no more than herbs of the humblest growth. About these mountains grew the same species of plants that I had observed on the other side of the alps. We now descended into a lower country. It seems, as I write this, that I am still walking down the mountain, so long and steep was the descent, but the alpine plants no longer made their appearance after we had reached the more humble hills. When we arrived at the plains below, how grateful was the transition from a chill and frozen mountain to a warm balmy valley! I sat down to regale myself with strawberries. Instead of ice and snow, I was surrounded with vegetation in all its prime. Such tall grass I had never before beheld in any country. Instead of the blustering wind so lately experienced, soft gales wafted around us the grateful scent of flowery clover and various other plants. In the earlier part of my journey, I had for some time experienced a long-continued spring (whose steps I pursued as I ascended the Lapland hills;) then unremitting winter and eternal snow surrounded me; summer at length was truly welcome. Oh how most lovely of all is summer!'

Linné ascribes the remarkable swiftness of foot exhibited by the Laplanders to several concurrent causes, as the want of heels to their half-boots; being accustomed to run, from their infancy; freedom from hard labour; habitual exercise of the muscles; their preference of animal to vegetable food; their eating little at a time; and the smallness of their stature. Their longevity he principally attributes to the extreme purity of the air and water; the use of food thoroughly dressed, and cold; temperate meals; deficiency of spirituous liquors; their endurance of cold from childhood; and their tranquillity of mind. The free and bracing air of elevated situations appears to have been as congenial with the author's own constitution, as with that of Saussure; and we have reason to believe that it would prove equally exhilirating to most individuals: but it is wholly unphilosophical to allege that the air on high mountains *ought to be more dense than in the valleys.*

In the course of a tedious and painful ascent over the lofty mountains which separate the low grounds of Norway from Lapland, the author experienced all the gradations of temperature; his clothes being wetted through with perspiration at the commencement of the journey, and frozen stiff with cold on the higher regions. In order to reach a Laplander's cabin, in descending, he was obliged to slide on his back down a steep hill, with the rapidity of an arrow; avoiding with difficulty the snow-torrents, which frequently threatened to overwhelm him.

Most of the Laplanders, it is observed, have blear eyes; owing, it is presumed, to piercing winds, reflection of the light from the snow, fogs, smoke, and the severity of the cold: but it is rather ludicrous to insinuate that the name of the country may be derived from *lippus*; though its deduction from the Swedish *lappa*, to patch, in allusion to the motley state of their garments, is perhaps equally fanciful.

Of the details respecting the rude and simple domestic economy of the Lapland mountaineers, we purposely pass many in silence, both because they are little calculated to interest the generality of readers, and because they include references to the engraved outlines of articles of furniture, utensils, &c. Notices relative to the nosology of these hyperborean regions are not liable to the same exceptions; and the few of this description, which are dispersed through the narrative, may well merit the attention of the medical student. We cannot scarcely believe, however, that the *inoculated* small-pox should be *remarkably fatal*: for what parents would deliberately subject their children to almost certain destruction? — Coughs are of very rare occurrence; and stone and gout are entirely unknown. Phthisical cases sometimes occur; and pleurisies are abundant, especially in the spring and autumn; while lumbago is most prevalent during the summer. Swelled necks, or goîtres, are frequent; and disorders in the stomach are not uncommon: but the writer did not hear of a single instance of jaundice. Chilblains are not more usual than in other places.

The Alpine Laplanders are represented as more honest, and more good-natured, than those who inhabit the wood-lands; because the latter, while they have acquired greater polish from their occasional intercourse with the inhabitants of towns, have at the same time learned more cunning and deceit, and are in general very knavish.

On the 23d of July, Linné took leave of the Alpine districts, and returned, by water, towards Lulea. On the 28th, he encountered danger in a new form:

> 'Several days ago the forests had been set on fire by lightning, and the flames raged at this time with great violence, owing to the drought of the season. In many different places, perhaps in nine or ten that came under my notice, the devastation extended several miles' distance. I traversed a space three quarters of a mile in extent which was entirely burnt, so that Flora, instead of appearing in her gay and verdant attire, was in deep sable, a spectacle more abhorrent to my feelings than to see her clad in the white livery of winter, for this, though it destroys the herbage, leaves the roots in safety, which the fire does not. The fire was nearly extinguished in most of the spots we visited, except in ant-hills, and dry trunks of trees. After we had travelled about half a quarter of a mile across one of these scenes of desolation, the wind began to blow with rather more force than it had done, upon which a sudden noise arose in the half-burnt forest, such as I can only compare to what may be imagined among a large army attacked by an enemy. We knew not whither to turn our steps. The smoke would not suffer us to remain where we were, nor durst we turn back. It seemed best to hasten forward, in hopes of speedily reaching the outskirts of the wood; but in this we were disappointed. We ran as fast as we could, in order to avoid being crushed by the falling trees, some of which threatened us every minute. Sometimes the fall of a huge trunk was so sudden, that we stood aghast, not knowing whither to turn to escape destruction, and throwing ourselves entirely on the protection of Providence. In one instance a large tree fell exactly between me and my guide, who walked not more than a fathom from me, but, thanks to God! we both escaped in safety. We were not a little rejoiced when this perilous adventure terminated, for we had felt all the while like a couple of outlaws, in momentary fear of surprise.'

At Tornea, we are introduced to crowds of blear-eyed and blinded Finlanders, who either lose or impair their sight by obstinately living among smoke. To cure them of this inveterate propensity, no gentle admonition is proposed. 'If I had the management of these Finlanders, I would tie them up to the wall and give them fifteen pair of lashes a piece till they made chimneys to their tents, especially as they have such plenty of fire-wood.'

In spring, many of the cattle about this place fall a sacrifice to the eagerness with which they devour the radical leaves of *Cicuta virosa*, being the only green food then within their reach; though even one woman might, it should seem, in the course of a month, eradicate every plant of this deleterious species.—In the neighbouring Alps, cold is brought by a *south* wind, and mild weather comes from the *north*; circumstances which favour the conjecture that open sea and a comparatively low temperature may exist at the pole.

Proceeding through East Bothnia, and by the island of Aland, districts which appear to have supplied few observations of much consequence, although the town of Abo is included in this portion of the journey, our distinguished naturalist arrived safe at Upsal, about one o'clock in the afternoon of the 10th of October, closing his varied and instructive recital with this pious apostrophe: 'to the Maker and Preserver of all things, be praise, honour, and glory for ever!'

To the Tour are subjoined a few cursory remarks on the *Phoca vitulina*, or *Common Seal*; of which it is asserted that *two* varieties exist, though others, we believe, have been since distinctly ascertained. We have reason to doubt the assertion that the female produces only one at a birth, because the Cornish fishermen have frequently observed two sucking the dam.

The Appendix to these volumes consists of the abstract of the journal to which we alluded in the commencement of our report, and of a very valuable extract from Dr. Wahlenberg's 'Observations made with a view to determine the height of the Lapland Alps,' translated from the Swedish by the late Mr. Dryander, and the last communication which Dr. Smith 'ever received from this excellent and learned pupil to the work of his master.'—In eight short sections, Dr. Wahlenberg, with singular acuteness of observation, characterizes so many separate lines, or stages of elevation. Of these, the first is denoted by the disappearance of the spruce-fir, *Convallaria bifolia*, *Arundo Phragmites*, *Lysimachia thyrsiflora*, &c. It is the true station of *Tussilago nivea*, and the last abode of the beaver, pike, and perch. The commencement of this boundary is 3200 feet below the line of perpetual snow, and its mean temperature is about 37½ of Fahrenheit's thermometer.—The second line is marked by the dwarfish aspect of the Scotch-firs, the paucity of bears, the infrequency of the gwiniad and grayling, and the appearance of *Phaca Alpina*, &c. The upper limit of this zone, where the Scotch-firs cease to vegetate, is 2800 feet below permanent snow; and the mean temperature nearly corresponds to 36½. — The third is distinguished by dwarf and stunted forests, consisting only of birch, which have their utmost boundary at 2000 feet below the line of snow. The Charr is not found at a greater height; and, a little higher up, all fishing ceases. — The fourth, which extends to within 1400 feet of the line of perpetual snow, exhibits a little brushwood, consisting of the glaucous willow, or dwarf birch, a few juniper bushes, and a profusion of *Arbutus Alpina*, *Andromeda cærulea*, and—*polifolia*, *Trientalis Europæa*, &c. Beyond it, the berries of *Rubus chamæmorus* do not ripen; nor does the glutton (*Mustela Gulo*) ascend higher. — The peculiar feature of the fifth is recognized in the rather *brown* than *green Azalea procumbens* and—*Lapponica*. The dwarf birch occupies its drier situations, but creeps entirely on the ground.—'The only berries, however, which ripen at this degree of elevation, are those of *Empetrum nigrum*; but these are twice as large as what grow in the woodlands, and better flavoured. The upper boundary of this zone is 800 feet below the line of perpetual snow. The Laplanders scarcely ever fix their tents higher up, as the pasture for their rein-deer ceases a very little way above this point. The mean temperature is about + 1° of Celsius (34 of Fahrenheit).' — The sixth stage, reaching to 200 feet beneath the limits of almost uninterrupted snow, comprizes patches of snow which never melt, with bare intervals, which produce a few dark shrubby plants; and green precipices which are embellished with the azure tints of *Gentiana tenella* and *nivalis*, and *Campanula uniflora*, accompanied by the yellow *Draba Alpina*:

'7. Beyond it perpetual snow begins to cover the greatest part of the ground, and we soon arrive at a point where only a few dark spots are here and there to be seen. This takes place on the Alps of Quickjock at the elevation of 4100 feet above the sea; but nearer the highest ridge, and particularly on the Norway side of that ridge, at 3100 feet. Some few plants, with succulent leaves, are thinly scattered over the spongy brown surface of the ground, where the reflected heat is strongest, quite up to the line of uninterrupted snow. These are *Saxifraga stellaris*, *rivularis* and *oppositifolia*, *Ranunculus nivalis* and *glacialis*, *Rumex digynus*, *Juncus curvatus** and *Silene acaulis*. The mean temperature at the boundary of perpetual snow is + 0,°4 of Celsius, (32¾ of Fahrenheit.)

'8. Above the line of perpetual snow, the cold is occasionally so much diminished, that a few plants of *Ranunculus glacialis*, and other similar ones, may now and then be found, in the clefts of some dark rock rising through the snow. This happens even to the height of 500 feet above that line. Further up the snow is very rarely moistened. Yet some umbilicated Lichens (*Gyrophoræ*,) &c., still occur in

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'* We know not what species the author intends by this name.'

es of perpendicular rocks, even to the height of 200
he line of perpetual snow. These are the utmost limit
tion, where the mean temperature seems to be + 1,°1 o
of Fahrenheit.) The Snow Bunting, *Emberiza niva*
ly living being that visits this elevated spot.'

the preceding notices and extracts can convey t
only a very inadequate idea of the quantity
il which has been pressed into this interesting diar
erve to furnish exemplifications of its nature a
hoever peruses the entire document, with cando
n, will be induced to regard it as the unaided a
ated production of a student of medicine, in
year, labouring under the daily privation of ma
nd braving cold, tempest, and danger, in the ea
of natural science. In this itinerary, we perce
that vanity for which its author was subsequen
listinguished. In the register of his life, for ex
tone of boasting egotism is in some instances truly
yet he seldom vaunts of more than he really accom-
never, we believe, of more than he himself fancied
for his love of veracity was strong and predomin-
have only to regret that such an exalted character
to record the topics of his own celebrity. — After
were never found but when it was accompanied
etensions, who would not almost forget that it was
?

The Dramatic Works of John Ford. With an Intro-
d Explanatory Notes, by Henry Weber, Esq. 2 Vols.

proportion of good sense) lead to a most unjust and partial estimate of the value of such knowlege or attainment. Thus, the passion for collecting rare specimens of antient literature, though at first dictated by no persuasion of the intrinsic worth of each article, will seldom exist for any long time without perverting the taste of the collector; who, independently of the force of habit, is not very forward to acknowlege that his time and his purse have been consumed in the pursuit of a phantom, and in the acquisition of such trash as any man in sound health of mind would be ashamed of receiving into his library.

The mischief, however, does not end here; or it would be comparatively very trifling indeed. The passion for rarity-hunting, as long as the effects of it are confined to those who are actually engaged in the pursuit, is deserving not only of toleration, but, to a certain extent, of encouragement. Among the heaps of *stuff* which it is the cause of perpetuating or dragging into a second life, it is hard indeed if sometimes a literary treasure be not rescued by it from unmerited oblivion. The rarity of a book, it must be acknowleged, is only *primâ facie* evidence of its want of merit; and it is possible that, out of many hundreds which are scarce only because they are worthless, some two or three may have fallen into neglect through the influence of circumstances unconnected with their intrinsic value: while a much larger proportion, though on their own account as little deserving of perpetuity as the most despicable of the whole number, may nevertheless reflect some useful lights on antiquity, or contain some important comment on works superior to themselves. As long as jewels are now and then to be found on a dung-hill, those who will take the pains of raking it ought not to be discouraged from their task; even though, in the ardour of the search, they lose all power of discrimination, and pick up dead Whiting's eyes as carefully as diamonds. The only abuse to be deprecated is that the preposterous value, set by collectors on the fruits of their industry, gradually influences the tone of public opinion, and tends to the confusion and subversion of all sound and acknowleged principles of criticism.

Of this corrupt taste, we are inclined to adduce, as striking instances, all the overstrained panegyrics which it is the fashion to lavish on the works of our older dramatists. It is not the voice of prejudice, but the voice of nature herself, that has elevated Shakspeare to a height which it would be the excess of vain and presumptuous folly to claim for any dramatic writer before or after him, or any of his contemporaries. In speaking of the latter, it is not too much to aver that not one of them, in the very happiest effort of his genius, can really sustain a moment's ment's comparison with that great and surprizing poet. It is not because in some one expression, or speech, or scene, Fletcher may be equally harmonious, or Massinger equally majestic, or Jonson equally characteristic, or Ford equally pathetic, that therefore Fletcher, or Massinger, or Jonson, or Ford, is worthy of being ranked with Shakspeare in all or any of those several qualities: — but even were it otherwise, and could it be admitted for a moment by any man of just feeling that Shakspeare has an equal or even a rival in each of them, still the union of all in one sets him at an incalculable distance above the heads of those dramatists, and renders all thought of general comparison as absurd as the vain swelling of the Frog in Æsop. Moreover, in one much higher quality than all those united, Shakspeare must be admitted to stand not only unequalled, but alone, and unapproachable by any of his contemporaries. It is that exquisite perception of moral and natural fitness, which accompanies him in all situations, even (if the expression may be used) in his very absurdities; since, even as to these, — howmuchsoever we may regret their introduction with a view to our critical rules of unity and congruity, — we can never say that they are out of nature, that they tend to embarass the fable, or, still less, to weaken our interest in the characters. Some persons (we cannot allow ourselves to be of the number) might wish to banish Hamlet's Grave-Diggers, Macbeth's Porter, or Lear's Fool: — but none can pretend that the melancholy Prince, the ambitious usurper, or the distracted father, are in any respect contaminated by their association with these, possibly, impertinent characters. If we call Shakspeare's absurdities by their worst name, and say that they are marks of a slavish compliance with the depraved taste of his age, that art must at the same time be considered as wonderful, which has enabled him to keep them from ever interfering with the main object of his pursuit; — from ever violating probability, or mixing the slightest stain of imperfection in the colours which he borrows bright and unadulterated from the hand of nature.

Such, however, are the partialities of editorship, which this case go hand in hand with the delusions of fashion, t scarcely one of Shakspeare's contemporaries has not, at so time or another, been indiscreetly and presumptuously brou forwards, if not as his professed rival, yet in such terms high-flown panegyric as to imply even a preference over Sh speare himself. A more flagrant instance of this fact has ne (to our knowlege) occurred, than in Mr. Gifford's valu edition of the works of Massinger; — the more flagrant, cause that able critic is one whom we should the least h suspec suspected of an undue bias in such respects. He has not indeed actually asserted, much less do we say that he really believes in, the superiority of Massinger over Shakspeare: — but he has used such extravagant terms of commendation, and even awarded the prize on so many points of comparison to his favourite and *protégé*, that, if he were to be construed literally by his readers, the conclusion to which he would inevitably lead them is that which, if asserted in positive language, he would be among the first loudly and earnestly to deny.

In the publication before us, to which it is now high time to call the attention of our readers, Mr. Weber is not quite so injudicious as Mr. Gifford; although we must say that he frequently carries his admiration of the writer, whose works he has undertaken to introduce to the patronage of the nineteenth century, to a very faulty excess in the same way of comparison. For instance, in speaking of Ford's versification, after having observed (in our opinion very justly) that it is 'remarkably harmonious, and, at the same time, more regular than that of many of his contemporaries,' he proceeds in the following strain of hyperbole: 'The peculiar modulation and variety of Shakspeare's metre, (the principle of construction in which has never been explained, though it must be felt by every admirer of that prince of poets), the sweet harmony of Fletcher's, and the vigour and force of Massinger's versification, cannot be disputed: *but whoever has perused the plays of Ford will not, it is presumed, be inclined to dispute an equality of praise with him on this point:*' — that is, we imagine, Ford's versification comprizes all the peculiar excellencies of that of Shaspeare, Fletcher, and Massinger, and is (consequently) superior, on the whole, to that of any of them. The truth is that a pure and harmonious versification was by no means a quality of rare attainment among our old dramatic writers; and we believe that Ford, besides being by no means inferior to his contemporaries in metrical beauty, deserves the additional praise of superior regularity and precision: — but the terms *sweetness*, *dignity*, *vigour*, *force*, &c. certainly imply, if they have any meaning, something more than mere metrical arrangement; and we can by no means admit that any one of the poets here brought into the comparison has pretensions to that absolute empire over language and expression, which was exercised by the "mighty master" of the drama.

Nevertheless, and in spite of his grossness, the merits of Ford as a dramatic writer are of a very high stamp; and Mr. Weber, in collecting his works together, and giving them to the public in a form adapted to modern taste and convenience, has conferred on that public a very acceptable service, for which we have no doubt that he will find his reward. We wish it were in our power to add that he has performed his office of editor in a way at all answerable to the expectations, which may justly be conceived of one who undertakes the task in the present age of acute and learned criticism. We opened the book as strangers to the author whose works are contained in it, except as to one of those plays which * (notwithstanding its unfortunate subject and title) we have read and admired in Dodsley's collection. The anticipations, which our knowlege of that tragedy had induced us to form, were fully realized in a few, and even surpassed in one or two, of the pieces which were new to us: but any information or pleasure which we had hoped to derive from the labours of the editor, they have failed to convey. His notes, with little exception, contain either tame explanations of passages that require none, or erroneous or insufficient explanations of such as need exposition; conjectural amendments devoid of taste or probability, and sometimes even worse than the faulty text which they are designed to cobble; together with illustrations of obvious allusions and phrases from common-place authorities: while the most difficult and the most faulty passages are often suffered to pass without either explanation or attempt at improvement. These are heavy charges; such as we are very sorry to make; and such as we should be perfectly ashamed of making without sufficient foundation. Our first duty will therefore be to justify ourselves by examples of the faults which we have censured in the editor; reserving for the conclusion of our article the more agreeable task of pointing out and enlarging on the beauties of the author.

We can see no possible use in squandering notes on such information as that "fond" means "foolish," (Vol. I. p. 9. and again Vol. II. p. 154.) and that "innocent" sometimes bears the same meaning. (Vol. i. p. 19.)—We do not require the quotation of a long passage from "Lyly's Epistle dedicatory to Euphues and his England," to prove to us that the antient acceptation of the word "Cunning" was only "Art" in a good sense; (ib. p. 33.)—nor to be told that a Blockhead *was* wont to be styled *metaphorically* "A Gull;" (ib. p. 128.)—nor to be referred to the "Comedy of Errors" as an authority for calling a lazy idle Fellow, "a Drone," (p. 163.) That "Tatterdemallion" is a vulgar term of reproach, we knew long before Mr. Weber obligingly (but somewhat inaccurately) informed us that it means a Vagabond, (p. 163.) Surely Mr. W. had no occasion for telling us that "*To limn*" signifies "To *paint*," (p. 182.)—for explaining the word "*wriggle*" by the information that Cotgrave translates the French "*Serpeger*" by "to wave, waggle, *wriggle*, writhe, or go waving," (p. 188.)—nor for expounding "*Splay-footed*" by the following note: '*Goibier* is explained by Cotgrave, Baker-legged, also splay-footed, shaling, ill-favouredly treading,' (p. 321.)—Of the same class with the foregoing are the notable and comfortable assurances that the word "Sometimes" (which should be "Sometime") is used in the sense of "Formerly;" (Vol. II. p. 26.)—that "To list" is an old word for "To choose:" (ib.)—that "Flam" is a vulgar word signifying "Deceit;" (p. 442.)—that "bruited" means "reported, or noised;" (p. 465.)—and that Skinner explains the verb "To bandy" by *totis viribus se opponere*, (p. 257.)

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* "'Tis pity she's a Whore."

Let the above suffice for instances of merely *unnecessary* explanation.—Proceed we, in the next place, to a few of those which we conceive to be *erroneous* also.

We have already noticed Mr. Weber's odd fancy of *explaining* very common and obvious English phrases by their corresponding cant-terms in the French language, out of Cotgrave. Another strange whim is the calling in Old Minshew, not as a corroborating or additional authority on points of doubt or perplexity, but as the sole authority to confound and perplex a point which, without his *assistance*, is as clear as the sun. Thus Minshew derives the word "Peevish" from the Italian "Pazzo," and tells those who consult him that it means "Foolish, Doating," &c.; on the authority of which, Mr. Weber deems it necessary in upwards of half a dozen passages, in which the word "Peevish" occurs, to inform us in a note that it means nothing but "foolish." Now, if Mr. Weber had only condescended to refer to so *modern* and *common* a book as Johnson's Dictionary, he would have found this word "Peevish" explained by no others whatever than "Petulant, waspish, easily offended, irritable, irascible, soon angry, perverse, morose, querulous, full of expressions of discontent, hard to please;" and, 2dly, "Expressing discontent or fretfulness;"—and the Etymology of Junius adopted as, at least, a probable one, "by corruption, from *perverse*." In our opinion, it is a matter of some utility to expose the impertinence of Rarity-Hunters, who shut their eyes against the light of the noon-day sun, and expect all their followers to grope about like themselves by the miserable glimmer of a farthing candle; and we shall therefore for once undertake the trouble, which may appear to many to be unnecessary, of collecting those passages in which Mr. Weber has explained *Peevish* by *Foolish:* in all of which (except one) it most evidently means not *Foolish* but *Peevish*, and *Peevish* only, according to the common understanding of the word, and its interpretation by Johnson.

er's Edition of Ford's Dramatic Works.

a Whore, Act 1. sc. 1.

Shall a *peevish* sound,
omary form, from man to man,
her and of sister, be a bar
my perpetual happiness and me?"
Perverse—contrary to my wishes.

cene 3. Giovanni says to the Friar, who h[redacted]as
pinion) *morosely* threatening him with the ve[redacted]n-
en for his sin,

is your *peevish* chattering, weak old man!"

"*Two Gentlemen of Verona,*" Act 5. sc. 1.
, this it is to be a *peevish* girl,
flies her fortune where it follows her."
froward, wayward.

ice, Act 3. sc. 2.
game's too tedious—'tis a *peevish* play"—
, fretful play.

he same piece, Act 4. sc. 1. occurs the [redacted]x-
eevish Passion."

Act 4. scene 1.
—"*Peevish* girl,
heard that Youth could doat on Sickness?" &[redacted]c.

ation) that ladies of that description used to wear
and thence obtained the *very common* appellation of
r;' (*Coateers* — Coatqueans — Cotqueans !) and,
nough, in support of this chimera, he refers to a
Hall's Satires, (Book IV. Sat. 4.) where the word is
t to a woman, but a *man!*

like a *Cotqueene*, freezeth at a rock,
t *his* breech'd Dame doth man the foreign stock."

W. demeaned himself so low as to consult the des-
n oracle above mentioned, he would have seen the
stion construed to mean "a man who busies himself
affairs;" in other words, *an effeminate man* (which,
exactly suits Grimaldi in the passage before us); and
ve found this interpretation established beyond a
e authority both of Shakspeare and of Addison. The
roposed by Johnson is from the French "*Coquin*."
me play, Act 5. sc. 3. "Thy conscience, youth,
Seared, (says Mr. W.)—dried up—a term gene-
l to trees.'—Indeed! We have heard of "the
low leaf:" but did Mr. W. never hear of searing
hot-iron? If nothing short of positive authority
im, we have it ready for the purpose. One of the
the famous trials for high treason, in the kingdom
(see Bunyan's *Holy War*,) lived at the sign of
ience seared with a Red-hot-iron," in Stony-heart-

n Heart, Act 1. sc. 1.
r so many quarrels, as dissention
broach'd in blood."

ays that no sense of the word will apply in this
spitted! What has he to object against "given
ed,"—published? (*Johnson.*)

y, Act 3. sc. 1.
Intrenching" (i. e. encroaching) "on just laws."
observes Mr. W. 'is a singular use of the verb, and
e for *trenching upon just laws*.' A very singular use,
ch is adopted by Dryden and Locke, and sanctioned
! The verb "to trench," on the contrary, was
oyed in that sense by any good writer, Mr. W.

ne. "Let the Gods be *moderators* still."
hor'!!! (says Mr. W.)—'A *metaphor* taken from
moderators in public corporations.' Oh Martinus
How is thy fame eclipsed!

'Same

ance, as to the surface of a woollen cloth or beaver.

" Love's sacrifice," Act 2. sc. 1. occurs the following on: — " She shall powder her hair, *surfell* her cheeks, her teeth," &c. — which word " surfell," Mr. W. in-y, and we have no doubt rightly, conjectures to mean ing paint over the cheeks; to place, as it were, an overskin on the natural skin. *Fell* is often used' (by are and other contemporary writers) ' for *skin*.' These sages reflect considerable light on each other.

adys' Trial, Act 1. sc. 1.

, being about to leave his young wife Spinella, gives h advice respecting her conduct during his absence, ng other things says,

ppear not in a fashion that can prompt
he gazer's eye, *or holla to report*."

, " make no display of your dress or person, so as ct the public gaze, to *call on* public fame to make subject of discourse." Mr. W., overlooking this very interpretation, tells us that ' *holla* is a term of horse- used for stopping the horse, and that it here means he reverse; viz. excitement—urging on.' This it is to mentator !

play, Act. 3. sc. 1.

ave here a most grave and learned note on the follow-
:

' The fellow's a shrew'd fellow *at a pink*."

,' says Mr. W. ' is used in the sense of *supremely excellent*,' upremely excellent Annotator !)—but ' that,' he adds, apply here;' and so he *conjectures* that the author *unk*. Oh admirable conjecture! Has Mr. Weber t with such an expression as " pinking" with a sword ? Fulgoso is here endeavouring to terrify the Spanish a ludicrous description of his rival's prowess, and disposition.

of Edmonton, Act 2. sc. 1.

' Enter Elizabeth Sawyer, gathering sticks.
l why on *me*? Why should the envious world
ow all their scandalous malice upon *me*?
——————— Some call me witch,
d being ignorant of myself, they go
out to teach me how to be one; urging
it my bad tongue (by their bad usage made so)
speaks their cattle, doth bewitch their corn," &c. &c.

This

l *forespeak* puzzles the commentator very strangely.
: it is used in the sense of *predicting*, and of *forbid*-
w either of those senses can apply here, he is at a
eive. Probably, he never read the Witches' in-
Macbeth:

shall neither night nor day
upon his pent-house lid.
hall live a man *forbid*:"—

the interdict, or restrictions, of a curse.

, Act 2. sc. 2.

. ——— Wherefore
weep now?
.———You, sweet, have the power
ake me *passionate* as an April-day;
smile, then weep; now pale, then crimson red.
u are the powerful moon of my blood's sea,
ake it ebb or flow into my face,
ur looks change."

passionate, in this beautiful speech, does not mean
ect to grief," or "disposed to weep," as Mr. W.
t subject to all the changes and vicissitudes of
The word will apply to all or any of the several
which man is liable, according to the context.
passage cited from Beaumont's and Fletcher's
money," it is well explained, *subject to sorrow*, or,
rs. In "*the Two Gentlemen of Verona*," when
escribed as "the *passionate* Protheus," it means,
assion of love: the *enamoured* Protheus.

sible to make sense of the old reading. In adherence to this maxim, Mr. Weber very properly rejects a plausible alteration of Dodsley in *'Tis pity she's a Whore,* Act 5. sc. 5., of *bit* into *hit*, the sense being perfect in the old reading, though the new would have been a manifest improvement. After having given due praise to Mr. Weber on this account, it is painful to add that his own notions on the subject are so unsettled, that we continually detect him in proposing (and actually admitting into the text) emendations which are wholly unnecessary, even in the same scene, or page, in which he with absurd squeamishness retains errors that are glaring, inexplicable, and admit of the most simple and obvious correction. Thus, in *Love's Sacrifice*, Act 2. sc. 4.

> " To stir up tragedies as black as brave,
> And *sending* the letcher panting to his grave,"

can any mortal doubt that the word so evidently misprinted in this place ought to be *send?* Yet the commentator has nothing to say on the passage, but 'so the old copy reads!' What religious veneration for an old copy! How then is the reader astonished, when, glancing his eye four or five pages forwards, he discovers (in Act 3. sc. 2. of the same play) the word "presence" substituted for "present;" boldly and unblushingly substituted, on no authority except mere conjecture, and in a passage in which "present" is not only intelligible, but incomparably the best and most probable reading?

> " *Duke.* Your uncle, sweetheart, at his *next* return,
> Must be saluted Cardinal. Ferentes,
> Be it your charge to think on some device
> To entertain the *present* with delight."

We have just before been given to understand that the Duchess's uncle is about to take up his abode in Pavia for one night only, being summoned to Rome to receive the Cardinal's hat. The antithesis is evident, therefore, between his *next* visit (after he has been admitted into the sacred college) and his *present*, or that which is immediately expected.

In *Love's Sacrifice*, Act 1. sc. 2., the absurd reading of the quarto, "unsold," is very happily restored to "unsoul'd"—— "Thus bodies walk *unsoul'd*"— i. e. *without souls*: but there is no grammatical error (as the editor supposes) in the line following:

> " Life, without her, *is* but Death's subtle *snares*."

The Broken Heart, Act 2. sc. 1.

> " *Phu.* Forsooth, they say, the king has *mow'd*
> All his grey beard, instead of which is budded
> Another of a pure carnation colour."

A very prodigious effect to be produced from the operation of a razor on the royal chin!—but 'the old copy reads *mewed*,' a word of which Mr. Weber has probably never heard as applied to a bird's shedding its feathers, and thence to the sun in a mist and to the moon at the wane, by no worse authorities than Cleaveland and Dryden. (See Johnson.) Why not, then, to a king changing his beard?

Act 3. sc. 2.

——— "Some way I must try
To outdo art and *cry* a jealousy."

So reads the old copy, 'quite absurdly,' says Mr. Weber; not very intelligibly, we must admit:—but how Mr. W.'s substitution of *try* for *cry*, which he has with infinite self-satisfaction foisted into the text, makes the matter better, we cannot discover.

The Lover's Melancholy, Act 5. sc. 1.

"*Palador.*——We must part:
The sudden meeting of these two fair rivulets
With th' island of our arms, Cleophila,
The custom of thy piety hath built
Even to thy younger years a monument
Of memorable fame."

This passage, in its present state, is undoubtedly most exquisite nonsense; and Mr. Weber, to make it better, *suspects* that 'we should read, *within the island* of our arms.' What could have made Mr. W. entertain any such *suspicion?* Or in what respect is the sense mended by it? Only let him attend to the punctuation, and '*we suspect*' that every thing else is perfectly right as it stands:

————"We must part
The sudden meeting of these two fair rivulets
With th' island of our arms. Cleophila,—
The custom of thy piety hath built, &c."

i. e. "*We*"—or "*I*"—(it is the king who speaks—) "I must part these sisters who are rushing into each other's embrace, by interposing my own arms between them, as an islan separates or prevents the union of two rivulets:"—or, stripping the speech entirely of its metaphorical quaintness, "I must separate the two sisters by embracing Eroclea myself."

The Broken Heart, Act 5. sc. 3.

Song.

"Glories, Pleasures, Pomps, Delights, and Ease,
Can but please
Outward senses, when the mind
Is not *untroubled*, or by peace refined."

Thus in the old copy, which Mr. W. condemns as positively corrupt; and he accordingly alters the text by inserting "*troubled*" in the place of "*untroubled*." It so happens that *either* reading *may* be right, and therefore the old one ought not to have been disturbed:—but, more than this, the old one appears to us to be far preferable in sense, though the conjectured emendation corresponds better with the metre. We understand the passage thus; "the pomps and vanities of the world can only please the outward senses, when the mind is tost about by the tempests of worldly cares and passions: but in the last hour, when the mind is untroubled, and refined to peace, these empty delusions have no charm:

> "Love only reigns in death; though art
> Can find no comfort for a broken heart."

In either sense, the song itself is a tender and beautiful composition, far superior to any other which we have found in the course of these plays: for we hold it to be the most unfounded dramatic blasphemy, to compare the merit of Ford's songs *in general* with those of Shakspeare. The introduction of so unnecessary an alteration *into the text* is unpardonable in an editor who, on another occasion, ("*'Tis pity*," &c. Act 5. sc. 5.) where Giovanni asks his sister, "What see you *in my face?*" and she answers, "distraction and a troubled *countenance*," condemns the reading of the modern editors, "*conscience*," as altogether "improper;" though it is very difficult to make sense of such an expression as "seeing a *countenance in a face*." Mr. Weber should at least be more considerate in his own emendations, before he rejects those of others as superfluous.

At the beginning of *The Lady's Trial*, Piero, meeting Futelli, asks of him the news of the day,—"the newest news, *unvampt*;" meaning, evidently, the latest news, unvarnished, undisguised, not pieced out by false exaggerations, *the naked truth*. The note on this simple passage affords an excellent specimen of the commentator's art: 'I have not met with this singular word. To *vamp* is to cover an old thing with a new part, and the word in the text, therefore, signifies uncovered, disclosed. *Perhaps* we should read,—"*Unvamp 't*." i. e. disclose it.' !!

Same play, Act 3. sc. 1.

> "Cut-throats, by the score, abroad, come home and *rot* in fripperies."

Here Mr. Weber *suspects* that we should read *riot*; a suspicion amounting so nearly to a certainty, that the emendation might safely have been admitted into the text, without any violation of the rule of criticism which he has, in other places, so wantonly infringed.

On the entrance of the Devil in the shape of a Dog, in *The Witch of Edmonton*, Mr. Weber is very curious to know 'how the actor who personated this infernal character was disguised;' and he conjectures, from a passage in the evidence of Grace Sowerbutts on the trial of the Lancashire witches, (Somers's Tracts, 1810. iii. p.126.) that he was allowed to walk upright. It seems very hard to refuse Mr. Weber the triumph which this notable and important discovery may be supposed to deserve: but it happens, unluckily for his hypothesis, that in Act 4. sc. 1. of the same play, the old lady thus commands her four-footed familiar;

> "Stand on thy hind-legs up — kiss me, my Tommy:"—

an evident proof that, till he received this amorous injunction, Satan's representative must have crawled about on his hands and feet, however inconvenient the posture.

'Tis pity, &c. Act 5. sc. 5.

'*Pleaseth* your grace to walk near?'—So reads the old copy; '*unmetrically*,' says Mr. Weber; and he accordingly alters *pleaseth* to *please*. It would have been both more metrical and less violent to strike out the word *to*.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. III. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London* for the Year 1811. Part I. 4to. 15s. sewed. Nicol and Son. 1811.

CHEMISTRY *and* PHYSIOLOGY.

THE *Bakerian lecture. On some of the Combinations of Oxymuriatic Gas and Oxygene, and on the Chemical Relations of these Principles to inflammable Bodies. By* H. Davy, *Esq. LL. D. Sec. R.S.* &c. — In our review of the last volume of the Philosophical Transactions, we gave an account of Dr. Davy's experiments on oxymuriatic gas; and of the new hypothesis which he proposed respecting its nature, and the relation which it bears to muriatic acid. The plausibility of the opinion, and the ingenuity of the reasoning by which it was attempted to be substantiated, induced us to receive it with implicit assent; an assent, however, which we confess was rather too hastily bestowed. Our scientific readers must be aware that the Professor's hypothesis respecting the elementary nature of oxymuriatic gas has been attacked with much acuteness by Mr. Murray of Edinburgh; who has brought forwards some experiments, which he supposes can only be explained by recurring to the old doctrine that oxymuriatic gas contains oxygen. We regard the controversy as at present undecided: but, with every feeling of respect for Prof. Davy, we must acknowlege that we consider Mr. Murray's argument as yet unanswered. Viewing the subject in this light, it is evident that a considerable part of the paper before us will appear to be founded on an incorrect process of reasoning; and we must also add that, after a careful perusal of it, we do not observe any statements contained in it which may not be satisfactorily explained on the old hypothesis. We are not, however, the less disposed to value the essay as a collection of important facts; in which we discern the uncommon dexterity in the prosecution of experimental research, that so eminently characterizes all the author's productions. The principal object of the lecture is to point out the results that are produced when oxymuriatic gas is made to act on the metals, and other inflammable substances; and particularly to compare them with the analogous results which ensue from the action of oxygen. As we are, for the present, induced to suspend our judgment respecting the theoretical opinion which forms the basis of all Dr. Davy's reasoning, and which is connected with all the inferences drawn from his experiments, we shall not enter into any detail of the contents of this memoir.

The Croonian Lecture, or some Physiological Researches respecting the Influence of the Brain on the Action of the Heart, and on the Generation of Animal Heat. By Mr. B. C. Brodie, F.R.S.—The experiments, which form the most important part of this paper, were undertaken for the purpose of pointing out the mode in which the influence of the brain is necessary to the action of the heart; and also of ascertaining the effect which the changes produced on the blood in respiration have on the heat of the animal body. It had been distinctly stated, both by Mr. Cruickshank and M. Bichat, that the brain is not directly necessary to the action of the heart, but that the heart ceases to contract when the nervous power is destroyed, in consequence of the interruption which occurs to the functions of the respiratory organs. It seemed naturally to follow from these premises, that, if the action of the lungs was artificially kept up, the circulation would also be continued, although the heart were no longer under the influence of the nervous power. Some simple experiments were performed to illustrate and confirm this doctrine: rabbits and dogs had the spinal marrow divided, or the head removed; the large vessels being tied, the lungs were kept in motion by bellows; and the heart continued to pulsate for a considerable length of time. The first of Mr. Brodie's objects of research appears to have

fully answered, and the opinion which he had forme
y substantiated. As the experiment had never,
een tried exactly under the same circumstances,
the author some degree of credit; although it is to
hat he has made out nothing new, and has not p
change in the doctrine which is generally adopted.
second part of his inquiry, Mr. B. has been m
e has even ventured to question the validity of
ypothesis respecting the cause of animal heat.
nduced to take this view of the subject from find
the respiration had been artificially maintained,
on of the heart had continued accordingly, the t
f the animal gradually decreased, even more quic
heart and lungs had been allowed to remain at r
haps not exactly the result which might have b
and we admit that the experiment is of suffic
to lead to an investigation of the circumstances,
se so great a difference between the effects of natural
of artificial respiration. Mr. Brodie has, however,
very different plan of proceeding; he has supposed
xperiments were of themselves sufficient to over-
labours of Black, Priestley, Crawford, and La-
d at one step he jumps into the conclusion that
t does not depend on respiration. Our readers will

s. A case lately occurred in which symptoms of the lescription were confined to one arm; and he found that, ssing on the carotid of the opposite side, the nervous on was diminished: thus rendering it probable that the : depended on a too great flow of blood to the brain. ıct is worthy of being recorded: but we think that it have been better adapted to one of the periodical jourhan to the Transactions of the Royal Society.

the Non-existence of Sugar in the Blood of Persons labouring Diabetes Mellitus. In a Letter to Alexander Marcet, *M.D.* . *from* Will. Hyde Wollaston, *M.D. Sec. R.S.*—This bears evident marks of the correct and acute mind of hor, and must be considered as effecting a real advancein the science of pathology. In order to decide the controverted question, respecting the existence of sugar blood of persons labouring under diabetes, Dr. W. ased by experiment what proportion of sugar could be ed visible in this fluid, which he determined to be 2½ in an ounce. He then applied the same process to the of several diabetic patients, but no indication of sugar rceived in any one instance. As, however, it is more le that the saccharine matter, which exists in diabetic is produced in the stomach than in the kidneys, Dr. ston next endeavoured to discover whether it was poshat the contents of the stomach could pass into the r without being carried through the blood vessels. This n was determined in a very decisive manner, by giving loses of the prussiate of potash, until the urine was so regnated with it that it was immediately discoverable by lition of iron; while neither the serum nor the saliva the least degree affected by it. Dr. Marcet (see his had an opportunity of carrying the experiment still fary giving the prussiate of potash to a person labouring diabetes; when it was found that the urine became y impregnated with it, at the same time that the blood o indication of its presence.

Combination of Oxymuriatic Gas and Oxygen Gas. By vy, *Esq. LL.D. &c.*—When muriatic acid is made to the hyper-oxymuriates, according to the mode in which ocess is conducted, either oxymuriatic gas or a mixture muriatic gas and oxygen is procured. This latter apo be a compound which possesses specific properties, ich consists of definite proportions of the ingredients, omposed of two parts by volume of oxymuriatic gas, to oxygen. It is more absorbable by water than pure oxymuriatic gas; and on this account it seems to have escaped t notice of former experimentalists, who, by receiving the pr duct over water, obtained only oxymuriatic gas. Prof. Dav gives a detail of the effects of this compound gas on the metal and inflammable bodies; and he concludes that the phænomen are favourable to his new opinion respecting the elementary nature of oxymuriatic gas. On this point, we beg leave, for the present, to suspend our judgment.

Experiments to prove that Fluids pass directly from the Stomach to the Circulation of the Blood, and from thence into the Cells of the Spleen, the Gall Bladder, and the Urinary Bladder, without going through the Thoracic Duct. By E. Home, *Eſq. F.R.S.*—We noticed, a short time since, a crude speculation by Mr. Home, respecting the use of the spleen and its connection with the stomach. He endeavoured, by some inconclusive experiments, to shew that, when fluids are taken into the digestive organs, they pass into the general course of the circulation without going through the thoracic duct: but, on a little farther investigation of the subject, he finds that he has no foundation for such an opinion, and that it is even contradicted by some decisive facts. It seems, indeed, very evident that fluids taken into the stomach arrive at the bladder when the thoracic duct is rendered impervious by a ligature: but the same effect was produced in a dog, after the spleen had been removed.—We hope that this incident, as well as some others of a similar nature, may induce Mr. Home to be more cautious in deducing hypotheses from his experiments.

On the Composition of Zeolite. By James Smithson, *Eſq. F.R.S.*—The minerals to which the name of zeolite has been applied were originally described by Cronstedt. They have all been found to contain a considerable quantity of lime, but it was not generally supposed that soda was essential to their chemical composition. Lately, however, a mineral has been analyzed by Klaproth, which contains soda in a considerable quantity, and which he therefore calls natrolite; yet its physical characters are precisely those of the zeolites. This circumstance induced Mr. Smithson to search more narrowly for soda in the proper zeolites, and he appears to have detected it in them; thus removing the apparent anomaly in the substance examined by Klaproth.

Experiments and Observations on the different Modes in which Death is produced by certain vegetable Poisons. By Mr. B. C. Brodie, *F.R.S.*—Mr. Brodie here again comes forwards as an experimental physiologist, and proposes to ascertain on which of the vital organs vegetable poisons act, by what medium they operate, and how their deleterious effects may be prevented. The substances examined were alcohol, the essential oil of bitter almonds, aconite, tobacco, a vegetable poison brought from Guiana, called Woorara, and the Upas-poison from Java. The experiments, which are numerous, were performed on dogs and rabbits; some of them shewing the effects which result from the application of the poisons to the tongue or the alimentary canal, and others to wounded surfaces. It appears that the results are faithfully detailed, but we do not perceive that they lead to any new information which can compensate for the number of animals that were destroyed, and the torture that must have been inflicted on them. As we see nothing peculiarly interesting in the manner in which the experiments were made, we shall simply quote the general conclusions which the author deduces from them:

'1. Alcohol, the essential oil of almonds, the juice of aconite, the empyreumatic oil of tobacco, and the woorara, act as poisons by simply destroying the functions of the brain; universal death taking place, because respiration is under the influence of the brain, and ceases when its functions are destroyed.

'2. The infusion of tobacco when injected into the intestine, and the upas antiar when applied to a wound, have the power of rendering the heart insensible to the stimulus of the blood, thus stopping the circulation; in other words, they occasion syncope.

'3. There is reason to believe that the poisons, which in these experiments were applied internally, produce their effects through the medium of the nerves without being absorbed into the circulation.

'4. When the Woorara is applied to a wound, it produces its effects on the brain, by entering the circulation through the divided blood-vessels, and, from analogy, we may conclude that other poisons, when applied to wounds, operate in a similar manner.

'5. When an animal is apparently dead from the influence of a poison, which acts by simply destroying the functions of the brain, it may, in some instances, at least, be made to recover, if respiration is artificially produced, and continued for a certain length of time.'

In concluding this report, we cannot but remark that the chemical and physiological papers in this number of the Philosophical Transactions are, for the most part, of inferior value.

MATHEMATICS.

On the Rectification of the Hyperbola by means of two Ellipses; proving that Method to be circuitous, and such as requires much more Calculation than is requisite by an appropriate Theorem; in which Process a new Theorem for the Rectification of that Curve is discovered. To which are added some farther Observations on the

he Hyberbola; among which the great Advantage
ries over ascending Series, in many Cases, is clearly
eral Methods are given for computing the constant
h those Series differ from each other. By the Rev.
.D. F.R.S. and Vicar of Potter's-Pury, in North-
ing an Appendix to his former Paper on the Rec-
Hyberbola, inserted in the Philosophical Transac-
r 1802.—It is not the length of the hyperbola,
of the ellipse, that we want to find, in *mathe-*
esearches, but the fluents of the expressions which
e the fluxions of the arcs of these curves.—After
f Landen, Le Gendre, and Mr. Wallace, on these
ought that the *matter was settled;* since those
have afforded us easy and certain methods of
pecific cases, arithmetical values to the above
nts. Mr. Wallace, in the 5th volume of the
nsactions, gave a very neat and expeditious me-
g the ellipse. By Landen's theorem, and by Le
ula, the hyperbola was expressed in terms of
fluent, which in a certain case expresses the
hyperbola, was reduced to, or made to depend
which in a certain case expresses the length of
e think that a real step was made in science,

endeavours to establish, that which we did not apprehend to be doubted, the utility of descending compared with ascending series.

The method of rectifying the hyperbola, says the author, is *circuitous*: but, if science were moved by such machines as he employs, it would be *retrograde*. Mr. H. entirely misunderstands the principles on which its advancement depends.

On the Expansion of any Functions of Multinomials. By Thomas Knight, *Esq.*—The object of this paper is the same as that which M. Arbogast proposed to himself in his *Calcul des Dérivations*, of which work we gave a full account in our xxxvith volume, N. S. p. 524, *Appendix*. Dr. Brinkley, also, had the same end in view, in his method of taking fluxions *per saltum*; which he inserted in the Irish Transactions.—Although, however, the object be the same, the process of attaining it is different; and, moreover, Mr. Knight, by his method, is enabled, (according to his own statement) 'to arrive at many new and remarkable theorems, both for direct and inverse derivation, which could not be very easily found by M. Arbogast's method.' A particular and critical examination of this paper would perhaps be contrary to the general tenor of our work, and would certainly far exceed the limits which we are able to assign to it.

Part II. for the year 1811. is now before us.

Art. IV. *Poems, original and translated; including Versions of the Medea and Octavia of Seneca.* By the Rev. C. A. Wheelwright, A. B. of Trinity College, Cambridge. Second Edition. 2 Vols. 12mo. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

These volumes are dedicated, in a complimentary strain of gratitude, to the Bishop of Lincoln; and they are introduced by a sensible and modest preface, in which, among other matters of information, the writer quotes the result of the critical opinions collected by Fabricius, respecting the authors of the plays edited under the name of Seneca. This result appears to be, according to Mr. W.'s citation, that 'the Hercules Furens, the Thyestes, and the Œdipus, were written by M. Seneca, the father of the Philosopher, who is distinguished from his son by the title of Rhetorician; that the Medea, the Hippolitus, and the Troades, are the undoubted production of Seneca the philosopher; and that the Thebais' (rather the Phœnissæ *) 'the Agamemnon, the Hercules Œtœus, and the Octavia, are of uncertain origin.' This last play, Mr. Wheelwright says, was selected for translation as a

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* See the edition *Gronovii et Variorum*.——*Rev.*

[illegible] one of the
[illegible] with, and
[illegible] Seneca
[illegible] the Rhetor-
[illegible] how he
[illegible] sentence

[illegible]

[illegible] Spanish, by
[illegible] and English,
[illegible] with addi-
[illegible] suppose
[illegible] this masque
[illegible] version of the
[illegible] possesses consi-
[illegible] the burlesque,
entitled

entitled Mock-Thyestes, which is joined to it. The author, indeed, cannot be justly charged with having violated the precept of Horace, (A.P. 90, 91.)

> " Indignatur item privatis ac prope socco
> Dignis carminibus narrari *cœna Thyestæ*,"

for the strains in which this travestie is sung are such as Melpomene and Thalia would have alike disdained to dictate.

' It is probable that the version of 1581, introduced Seneca to the notice of the learned at that period, as we find a line and a half from the Hippolitus quoted in that " knavish piece of work" Titus Andronicus *, (Act. 4. sc. 1.) which it would be more than injustice to attribute to Shakspere, although it was in all probability the work of a contemporary author, as Malone, in his Attempt to Ascertain, &c. refers it to the year 1587; and it is upon record that its scenes of disgusting and complicated horrors were tolerated in the reign of Charles II. and even applauded in that of Elizabeth.

' In order to obviate the charge of presumption, which might perhaps be preferred against me for having attempted that which Sir Edward Sherburne had already executed, I will give an extract from his version of the Medea, which may be considered a fair specimen of the whole: vv. 320 et. seq. he thus translates:

> " Now 'fore a quartering gale
> His course to run with all his saile;
> Now bring the tack aboard; now fast
> His lower'd yards bind to the mast;
> His canvas then unfurl'd againe,
> Unto the windes to hoise amaine,
> When the too greedy mariner
> Calls for a gust; and th' red *Drabler*
> Unto th' inlarged saile made fast,
> Trembles with the convulsive blast."

' This passage is sufficiently technical, but I think that no one will assert that it is poetical. Sir Edward is justly characterized by Johnson (Life of Dryden) as " a man, whose learning was greater than his powers of poetry; and who, being better qualified to give the meaning than the spirit of Seneca, has introduced his version of these tragedies by a defence of close translation."

' Of the version now offered to the public, and which is presented merely as a specimen, it is more difficult for me to speak. Setting aside that perplexing definition of translation, which declares it to be *more close than paraphrase, and more loose than metaphrase,* I have

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' * For the accumulated murders with which this piece abounds, the author appears anxious to furnish himself with an apology, by conjecturing that

> " *the gods delight in tragedies.*"——Act 4. sc. 1.

' Every writer for the stage must be sensible how important it is to secure to himself the applauding thunders of those august *hyper-critics*.'

endeavoured, in compliance with the rules established in the admirable Essay on the principles of Translation, to unite the freedom of original composition with a faithful transcript of the ideas and sentiments of my author, and an imitation of his characteristic style and manner.'

How far the translator has succeeded in the execution of this design, we shall now enable our readers to form their own judgment, by some extracts from his version of the Medea.—By what means the story of this vindictive, sanguinary, and monster-breeding witch of antiquity became a favourite with any modern dramatist, we cannot imagine; and although Mr. Wheelwright labours, in his notes, to vindicate the fame of Seneca from the aspersions cast on it by Brumoy and others, relative to his supposed faults in the conduct of this tragedy, we conceive that (excepting in one instance, which we shall specify,) the defence is aukwardly and inartificially managed throughout:—but the greatest fault of all, the choice of such a story, must in course be forgiven to a Latin author,—the natural and necessary slave of imitation from the Greek: so true, in all its parts and bearings is the assertion of Horace*. Corneille cannot plead even this servile excuse. Medea on a modern stage is monstrous indeed; a subject fit only for the accompaniment of the harpsichord in the orchestra of a summer-theatre, to be dramatized in rhyme, and chaunted by Mr. Elliston in female attire, as the mighty magician of the Circus.

The first selection, which we shall make as a specimen of Mr. W.'s powers of translation, is that celebrated passage at the conclusion of the second act of the Medea, in which is exhibited something very much resembling a prophecy of the discovery of America. We transcribe the original first:

" *Venient annis sæcula seris,*
Quibus Oceanus vincula rerum
Laxet, et INGENS PATEAT TELLUS,
Tethysque NOVOS *detegat* ORBES,
Nec sit terris ultima Thule."
Chorus Medeæ, act. secund.

Now let us see how these pregnant hendecasyllables are rendered into English Lyrics:

' E'en thus, as distant ages roll,
Shall nature change her wonted face;
Nor ocean's narrow wave control
The wishes of a future race.
Advent'rous from the sea-girt shore,

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* " *Græcia capta ferum victorem cepit,*" &c. &c. The excuse includes Ovid as well as Seneca, if the former wanted it.

Shall spring the billow-cleaving oar,
  Another bark to guide;
Neptune shall rouse his slumb'ring main,
And threat, and foam, and swell in vain,
  And lash the angry tide.

'Lo! as the unborn years arise,
  What triumphs swell the voice of fame!
What notes of glory rend the skies,
  And hymn the fearless pilot's name!
Taught by his art, what vessels roam,
Unnumber'd o'er the yielding foam,
  To search the earth anew:
Bounded no more by Thule's coast,
Lo! the drear realms of op'ning frost
  Unfold their worlds to view.'

We leave this version without comment. The eye, or an inch-rule, would be the best means of appreciating its merit:—but, in truth, we are sorry to be compelled to give pain to a very respectable scholar, by assuring him that such diluted amplification is the worst mode of translating a classical author. The antients condensed their thoughts (yes, even the comparatively redundant Seneca) in a manner evidently unknown to *the bulk* of modern writers. We must add to this consideration their beautiful languages; in which the variety of termination alone (we were about to say) almost answered the variety of thought. Impossible as we are well aware it is to render a Grecian—and still less a Roman—author, line for line, yet it should be a translator's first object, after he has *imbibed* the spirit of his original, to confine his attempt to transfuse the soul of the antient into a modern body, within some "reasonable compass." Indeed, dilation being "the sin which most easily besets" the *doer* into English, he should consequently guard against it more than any other offence. What but this luxuriant profusion of verse, in rendering a poet already too profuse, has made Rowe's Lucan be ranked in the second instead of the very first class of translations?—for it is not often that Rowe deserves the censure too justly bestowed on his version of the scene in the 9th book at the temple of Jupiter Ammon:—where, indeed, as *Phileleutherus Lipsiensis* *, with his wonted sagacity and severity, has observed, scarcely a line gives the meaning of the original. We are very glad to have a different sentence to pronounce on the present translator. He is usually faithful enough to give all the meaning of his author: but unfortunately he always chuses to give much more than

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* See Bentley against Collins, *sub fine.*

" *Full measure, and running over,*" seems to
motto of his version. — That he *un*consciously
rime on some occasions (although we think that
which we are about to cite is a proof of his being
ious of it) will appear from the following pas-
. alludes to it in his notes, by saying, ' I hope
ot weakened the force of this fine passage by
plification:' page 172. Our readers again shall
e first scene of the second act of the Medea, she
are in earnest dialogue, when the latter says;

lla monstrat rebus afflictis viam.
. — *Qui nîl potest sperare, desperet nihil.*
x. — *Abiere Colchi. Conjugis nulla est fides.*
uperest opibus è tantis tibi.
. — *Medea superest! hic mare et terras vides,*
e, et ignes, et Deos, et Fulmina!"

— Full oft affliction proves that hope is vain.
— Then welcome black despair!
— Yes, all is lost.
Jason scorns, and hostile Colchis
er fugitive. What now remains?
— The lost, the scorn'd Medea! ocean's wave,
's wide orb is mine! I hurl the lightnings,
venging steel! Th' infernal gods
y name and tremble.'

readers judged? We will request their atten-
a moment. Even in the alternate iambics, b
burst of exultation, much of the spirit appears

with Corneille in this very passage. Now really "*Le Grand Corneille*," who, as an imitator, to say the most, (when we oppose him to a professed translator) had much ampler license for inserting his own thoughts, has been closer, *it appears to us*, even if considered as a translator, in his copy from Seneca on the present occasion. We quote the passage, after Mr. Wheelwright:

> "*Oui, tu vois en moi seule et le fer et la flamme,*
> *Et la terre et la mer, et l'enfer et les cieux,*
> *Et le sceptre des Rois, et le foudre des Dieux.*"

This indeed is poetry. "*Le sceptre des Rois*" may be engrafted, perhaps, from the following passage, but it is admirably engrafted; and we wonder how Mr. Wheelwright could preface such a quotation by saying, in allusion to his own version, 'Corneille, in his Médée, *of which several scenes are almost literally translated* from Seneca, is not more concise.' "*Sub judice lis est.*"

We had marked many passages for similar censure throughout this translation: but we shall be satisfied with again admonishing Mr. W. of his sin of *verbiage;* and with quoting an instance of another species of offence, namely sheer idleness, into which he too often falls. It is impossible that even a maiden author could imagine the following lines to be poetical. They close the Medea. What a *finale!*

> 'JASON (to MEDEA, when carried off in her *winged Chariot.*)
> 'Pursue thy track sublime! And oh! record,
> Where'er thou fliest, no deity dwells there,
> Who gives to 'scape impiety like thine.'

> "*Per alta vade spatia sublimi ætheris:*
> *Testare nullos esse, qua veheris, deos.*"—

Here we must remark that a very obvious illustration from Martial might have occurred to Mr. W. ("*nullos esse Deos,*" &c.) and we must add that his notes display but a meagre stock of parallel passages; though this is almost the only species of commentary which he professes to give. Moreover, we cannot always admire his taste. He panegyrizes, for instance, a passage in Glover's Medea, as a '*beautiful apostrophe,*' which begins thus:

> "Blast his perfidious head, vindictive lightnings:"

—but *de gustibus*, &c.—The mode of reasoning adopted in one of the notes (in which a passage from the poems attributed to Rowley is adduced as closely parallel to a speech in Macbeth) does not strike us as particularly ingenious. In the first place, we do not think that the closeness of the parallel is very clearly made out: (see the note, pages 183, 4, 5. vol. i.) but, for t sake of argument, allowing it to be so, what are we to say of t subjoined remark? 'If Chatterton's story is to be believ Shakspere never saw the poems attributed to Rowley. I m not draw the inference.' Let us draw the inference. Chatt ton's story is not to be believed. He forged the passage question from a loose (not a '*studied*') imitation of Macbeth* We are not clear, on revising the passage, that we thoroug understand what Mr. Wheelwright means by '*Chattert story*:'—but the reference which we have made will enable reader to decide.

We now come to the Octavia; a play, with all its faults, which the subject redeems it from that listlessness of pen which never fails to accompany the twice-told tales of the r thology. This subject, we need not remind our class readers, is that of the repudiation of Octavia by Nero, and marriage with Poppæa. 'The occurrences of this period' the translator observes, for we cannot exactly say the sa occurrences) have been dramatized by two celebrated mod authors. The Britannicus of Racine is, perhaps, his happ effort; and the fragment of Agrippina, by Gray, does ind make us regret that we have no farther opportunity of judg what that great poet's classical taste would have enabled l to execute for the honour of the English drama. We can help thinking, as the strain would doubtless have been much "higher mood" than that which inspired the Caracta and Elfrida, that Gray would have effected something tow reconciling our lawless taste to the more correct model composition: but, so ample is the field for discussion wl this view opens before us, that we must be content for present with a glance of it, and return to Mr. Wheelwrigh' We know not why he talks of Gray's '*fragment of a tra under the same title*,' having before mentioned only the Oct and the Britannicus: but we conclude that this was a *la calami*; especially as we read, in the notes to the Mede quotation from Gray's *Agrippina*.

The version of the Octavia is much better finished than of the Medea: probably it was executed last; and indee bears evident marks of increased facility in composition. augur well from this circumstance. Would Mr. Wheelwr practise still farther, and give us all the plays of Seneca, (attending to the double caution administered above, aga verbiage and carelessness,) we doubt not that we should l the pleasing task of recording his manifest improvement; and of thanking him for supplying a desideratum in English Literature.

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* We beg to refer those of our readers who are yet interest this question to our last sketch of it, page 35. Vol. lxi. N.S. N ber for January 1810.

Out of the many successful passages in the Octavia, we select the following; of which both the original and the translation appear to us very beautiful. In her wretched state of desertion, Octavia exclaims,

> " *Quis mea dignè deflere potest*
> *Mala? quæ lacrymis nostris questus*
> *Reddet Aëdon? cujus pennas*
> *Utinam miseræ mihi fata darent!* *
> *Fugerem luctus ablata meos*
> *Pennâ volucri, procul et cœtus*
> *Hominum tristes, cædemque feram.*
> *Sola in vacuo nemore, et tenui*
> *Ramo pendens, querulo possem*
> *Gutture mæstum fundere murmur.*" Act 5.

Surely this may be *modestly* compared with the famous complaint of the Nightingale in Virgil; or with any of those numerous classical passages on the same subject, which were so well collected in that anonymous pamphlet which overturned the celebrated Charles Fox's untenable hypothesis concerning the antient notion of the

> " Sweet bird that shuns the noise of folly,
> Most musical, most melancholy."

Let us now listen to the translator:

> ' What tears are worthy to deplore my fate?
> What nightingale shall raise the song for me,
> In melancholy sympathy of woe?
> Ah! that her wings were mine — then would I fly
> From all my griefs, from factious multitudes,
> And every haunt of sanguinary man.
> Then, hanging lonely in the vacant grove,
> Upon some slender branch, I would pour forth
> Th' unceasing note of querulous despair.'

The next passage, which we shall present to our readers, is one of a different character; — one in which the translator has, we think, shewn himself as capable of preserving the vigour and animation of his original, as its occasional pathos. Poppæa, in the fourth act, comes out of the bridal chamber, in extreme agitation and alarm, and returns the following answer to the anxious inquiries of her nurse;

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* This is one of the closest classical parallels which we recollect to the touching exclamation in the Psalms, " O that I had wings like a dove."

a tristi proximæ noctis metu
ue, nutrix, mente turbatâ feror,
a sensu: læta nam postquam dies
bus atris cessit, et nocti polus,
Neronis juncta complexus mei
resolvor; nec diu placidâ frui
licuit: visa nam thalamos meos
are turba est mœsta; resolutis comis
es Latinæ flebiles planctus dabant;
tubarum sæpe terribilem sonum
m cruore conjugis genetrix mei
minaci sæva quatiebat facem:
dum sequor, coacta præsenti metu,
ta subitò patuit ingenti mihi
hiatu: lata quo præceps, toros
jugales pariter et miror meos,
s resedi fessa. Venientem intuor
nte turbâ conjugem quondam meum,
mque: properat petere complexus meos
nus, intermissa libare oscula.
pit intrà tecta cum trepidus mea,
que jugulo condidit sævum Nero.
m quietem magnus excussit timor:
ora et artus horridus nostros tremor,
que pectus: continet vocem timor *,
nunc fides pietasque produxit tua.
quid minantur Inferûm Manes mihi
uem cruorem conjugis vidi mei?"

When soon approaching with a numerous crowd,
I see my former Husband and my Son!
By fond impatience urg'd, Crispinus seeks
My intermitted blandishments to share,
And taste the soft caresses; but with steps
Of jealous haste the Monarch bursts within,
And buries in my neck his furious steel!
Fear breaks the bonds of sleep; my heaving breast
Thrills with the shock, and terror chains my tongue,
Which now thy tender sympathy resolves.
But whence this threat, which thunders from the tomb?
Or what portends my Husband's thirst for blood?"

iis whole passage is very creditably rendered: but the ession in the last line is not authorized by the original. "*cruor conjugis*" is indeed very obscure.

he space which we have allotted to Mr. Wheelwright's first me will compel us to be brief in our notice of his second: hich the contents, in fact, are much less interesting. They ist of versions from the fragments of Latin Tragedians; of a slation of the 13th Satire of Juvenal; and of some miscelous poems, original and translated. These, like most other ellanies, deserve the old character, "*Sunt bona*," &c. &c. volume concludes with an irregular ode, intitled Hast- or the Bard of Harold, which was not published in the edition. It belongs to the genus of irregular odes, and truly sisterly resemblance to most of the children of that y.—In the fragments from the Latin, we observe rather dd mistake. The third fragment is superscribed 'from phontes, Cic. Tusc. 1.' We thought that our memory deceived us, if all was right here; and on referring to o, we read, "*Quâ sententiâ in Cresphonte usus* EURI- s."

"*Nam nos decebat cœtu celebrantes domum*
Lugere, ubi esset aliquis in lucem editus,
Humanæ vitæ varia reputantes mala.
At qui labores morte finisset graves,
Hunc omnes amicos laude et lætitiâ exequi."

e original of this passage is quoted by Plutarch *De Au-*
s Poetis:

Τον φυντα θρηνειν ἐις ὸσ' ἐρχεται κακα·
Τον δ' ἀυ θανοντα, και πονων πεπαυμενον,
Χαιροντας, ἐυφημοῦντας, ἐκπεμπειν δομων·

rcibly reminds us of the Greek epigram, so well ren- in the "Translations from the Anthology,"

"Thracians, who howl around an infant's birth,
And give the funeral hour to songs and mirth,
Well, in your grief and gladness, are exprest
That life is labour, and that death is rest."

Mr. Wheelwright offers us some specimens of Latin composition, on the elegance of which we cannot compliment him. They are, generally speaking, tolerably correct, but often extremely cold and spiritless.—We select a stanza or two from his copy of that worn-out anvil, on which the student hammers Latin verse, *Gray's Elegy*. The translator who could thus murder "The Boast of Heraldry," &c. must be remorseless indeed.

'*Nobilitas*, *et opes*, *et summa potentia regum*,
Dulcis et ab [*] *omni parte beatus amor*,
Unà cuncta manent necis *irrevocabile tempus*,
Ducit ad extremos gloria prima rogos.'

We have rarely seen this stanza worse rendered in the lowest verse class of a public school. Had the author never taken advantage of that publicity which the "Pursuits of Literature" gave to Edward Cooke's admirable translation? It cannot be too often transcribed:

Ἁ χαρις ἐυγενεων, χαρις ἁ βασιληιδος αρχης,
Δωρα τυχης, χρυσεας Ἀφροδιτης καλα τα δωρα,
Πανθ' ἁμα ταυτα τεθνακε, και ἦνθεν μορσιμον ἦμαρ
Ἡρωων κλε' ὀλωλε, και ᾠχετο ΚΟΙΝΟΝ ἐς Ἁδην·

Mr. Wheelwright's version must evidently have been among his school-exercises; of which we beg to have no more, unless they be retouched throughout. The subjoined stanza, which we insert in order to be as impartial as possible, will shew that he could do better:

"Full many a gem," &c. &c.

'*Oceani passim per opacos gemma recessus*,
Exhibet innumeras, *at sine luce*, *faces*;
Desertas passim disperso flore per auras,
Subrubet incultæ gratia vana rosæ.'

We here take our leave of a young writer who, with patience, docility, and attention, may rise to a very respectable standard of merit.

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[*] We conclude that this is a false print for *ex*:—but how untrue to the original which mentions not love, nor dwells on beauty!

Mr. Veysie *on the Greek Prepositive Article,*

[*Article concluded from p.* 178.]

e of the intimation in our last number, we now
discuss ‘ the possessive relation, or the power
icle is supposed to have of expressing the posses-
.’ Of such expressions as *αλγεω ταν κεφαλαν,*
l. iii. 52.) Mr. Veysie says that “ I have a pain in
strict translation, since the article marks the pos-
on, as well as the determinate signification, of the
h it is prefixed ; and Dr. Middleton says the same
he tells us that the article has the *sense*, or *force*, or
of a possessive pronoun : — but in this and all
, the article *ταν* no more marks the possessive re-
ore signifies *my*, than does any other word in the
ot so much, indeed, as *αλγεω* does. The nature
tances of the case, the whole turn and tendency of
on, and not the article, mark the possessive rela-
ght as well be said that the French article, or the
inite article *the*, or indeed that the indefinite *a*,
ssion, or signifies *my*, in the following phrases ; “ *j'ai*
,” “ I have a pain in *the* head ;” or in the Scotch
have *a* sair head,” or its equivalent in English, “ I
ach.” In translating such phrases from the Greek,
ay very properly be, and most commonly is, omitted,
onoun substituted in its stead. (See Matt. viii. 20.
Luke ix. 58. where *την κεφαλην* is rendered “ *his*
την χειρα “ *his* hand,” and the pronouns are marked
shew that the original has nothing corresponding to
also what we have said respecting Mr. Veysie's obser-
the rendering of *του βιου* in the passage from Xeno-
ards the beginning of this article, and M. Rev.
. 162.) It is, however, the context, and not the
it authorizes such a translation ; which is not a
rict translation, as Mr. V. supposes. In John xix. 30.
is rendered “ his head,” and *το πνευμα* “ the
ough the first of these articles no more marks a
relation than the second. The following passages,
far as the article is concerned, they are exactly
the foregoing, contain no possessive relation ; *ὁ φυ-*
ας ουχι ακουει, η ὁ πλασας ΤΟΝ *οφθαλμον ουχι κατανοει ;*
9. *Ου δυναται Ὁ οφθαλμος ειπειν* ΤΗ *χειρι χρειαν σου ουκ εχω·*
κεφαλη ΤΟΙΣ *ποσι χρειαν ὑμων ουκ εχω·* 1. Cor. xii. 21.
ord shall make thee *the* head and not *the* tail.”
iii. 13. 44. “ The waters forgotten of *the* foot are dried
. xxviii. 4. Whence is it that we discover a pos-

in the former passages, and not in the latter?
t, most assuredly, and not from the article.
icle marked a possessive relation, the addition
a possessive pronoun, which so frequently oc-
mere tautology; and such expressions as τω
οφθαλμω, τυς μαργαριτας ὑμων, τοις ποσιν αυτων,
would be faultily redundant.

examples which Mr. Veysie has subjoined by
on to this case of possessive relation, we think
roperly inserted the three following: Ὁ κολ-
1 Cor. vi. 16. — ου χρειαν ειχεν ἱνα τις μαρτυρηση
αυτος γαρ εγινωσκε τι ην εν τῳ ανθρωπῳ· John ii.
Χρυσην ητιμησ' αρητηρα, Il. i. 11.

f these examples, τῃ πορνῃ does not mean
ould a translator render it "his harlot," in
s την κεφαλην in Matt. viii. 20. is rendered
thout perverting the writer's meaning: be-
ndering would contain an insinuation that a
al a part of a man's establishment as his head
and would imply that every man had his har-
s he had his dress, his occupation, his lan-
ter, or any other of those *accidents*, as the logi-
which are commonly found in all men. It
plausibility be supposed that πορνη has the
e because the same word has been mentioned
he preceding verse; or because the word is
its own class, and is meant to denote, not a
but a woman of that particular description;
as ἡ παρθενος is used in Matt. i. 23. to denote

fairly be presumed to be well acquainted with them; otherwise the writer becomes unintelligible, as far as the article is concerned. In the passage of Matthew in which ἡ παρθενος occurs, the circumstance mentioned at the time is of a nature so extraordinary as to be miraculous in a woman of that definite description; and therefore we here see a sufficient reason, in that circumstance, for making the noun definite. In the passage of Corinthians in which τῃ πορνῃ occurs, the writer gives us no reason for making the noun definite; — and it does not appear to have been so very common as to have become a *custom*, either with the Greeks or the Jews, to number harlots as one species of women among others, and to call one of that species "*the* harlot," merely to distinguish her from women of another kind; in the same way as it was a custom with the Greeks to speak definitely of man, and to say ὁ ανθρωπος merely to distinguish one of the human species from other animals. There was, however, another custom so prevalent among the Jews as to be perfectly well known and understood by those to whom Paul addressed his epistle, and which would clearly explain to them his reason for speaking definitely, though many readers of the present day, from not knowing or not attending to that custom, may be at a loss to discover why he uses the article; viz. the custom of calling the moral law of the Jews their *wife*,—and the ritual law the *hand-maid*, the *bond-woman*, the *concubine*, the *harlot*,—and the prostitution of the ritual law by scribes and pharisees, (who used it for the gratification of lust instead of using it for the propagation of virtue,) *fornication*. This is *the* harlot of whom Paul here speaks; and of whom he says that the man who was wedded to her, so besotted and bigotted to her as to make her his wife instead of his hand-maid, became thereby one body with her, altogether carnal, a mere mass of bigotry, prostitution, and corruption. The *body* is used by the apostle in this and the preceding verses to denote that which Dr. Jortin, in one of his sermons, (the 16th in Vol. 3d. edit. 1809. p. 203.) calls "the whole system of ceremony, outside shew, and bodily devotion." The word κολλωμενος is applied metaphorically, in allusion to the practice of catching birds with bird-lime. Similar allusions may be seen in Psal. cxxiv. 7. Prov. vii. 23. comp. verse 10. Eccles. ix. 12.

The second of those examples which we mentioned, and which Mr. Veysie has taken from John ii. 25. he thus explains; "he needed not that any one should testify of man," (περι τȣ ανθρωπȣ) i. e. of *the* man concerning whom the person testifying could bear testimony of his man — "for he himself knew what was in *that* man." This surely is a very aukward explanation.

nation. Ὁ *ανθρωπος* is used definitely in this passage to de the creature *Man*, according to the custom which we no in the last paragraph. The French, in like manner, *L'homme*, to denote *Man*, i. e. *mankind*. (See Rev. Vol. pp. 383. and 384.)

In the third example, taken from Homer, Il. i. 11. th ticle prefixed to the proper name *Chryses* has none of that sessive power which Mr. V. ascribes to it. It does not 'p out the relation of Chryses to Apollo as *his* priest.' Both Middleton and Mr. Veysie speak of the difficulty of accoun for the use of the article in this passage: but we see no culty, nothing unusual, in the case. The article is emp here, as on all other occasions, to render the name (Chry more definite than it would be without an article. It was simply Chryses that Agamemnon had disgraced, but *the* Chr who was a priest, that holy man. In a different arrangeme the words, *τον αρητηρα Χρυσην*, nobody would find any diffic Why should they fancy any in the present arrangement? *Χρυσην αρητηρα* is the Chryses who is definite by being a pr just as *τον αρητηρα Χρυσην* is the priest who is definite by b Chryses. A parallel passage occurs in Judges ix. 18. *τον Α λεχ υιον της παιδισκης*, *the* Abimelech the bondwoman's son, vile slave, a worthless bramble. (See verse 15th.)

Harris, in his Hermes, (p. 226. edit. 8vo. 1771,) asserts the article before proper names "is a mere pleonasm, u perhaps it serve to distinguish sexes." This remark has c forth the animadversions of more writers than one, and of Veysie (p. 15.) among the rest. It is indeed surprising Harris should have made such an assertion, after having before (p. 220.) observed, from Apollonius, that "proper na often fall into *Homonymie*, that is, different persons often g the same name." He was misled by his notion (derived wise from Apollonius) that there are certain words with w the article cannot be associated. On the use of the article proper names, we have already delivered our sentiments; a think, with sufficient fullness. (See Rev. Vol. lxii. pp. 389, and note * p. 167. of our last Number.) We will now, th fore, add only a few words to shew that the *principle*, on w Mr. Harris grounds his assertion of the article with pr names being a pleonasm, is in our opinion, erroneous and founded; which we deem it the more necessary to do, bec that principle affects the use of the article in many other c besides that of proper names.

The principle is this, that there are certain words with w the article cannot be associated; and that these words ar such as are "already as definite as may be," or such as, " b indefinite, cannot properly be made otherwise." (p. 225.) We know not any such words. *Definite* and *indefinite* are relative terms, to the degrees of which no fixed limit is assigned. Nothing is so definite, or so indefinite, that it cannot be made more so; nor any thing so indefinite that it cannot be made otherwise.

The true question, however, in order to ascertain whether any words exist with which the article cannot be associated, is, whether there be any thing of such a nature that it cannot be numbered definitely, or indefinitely, among other things of one sort or another. Now it is manifest that there is no such thing. No word, therefore, by which any thing is expressed, or implied, can be of such a nature that the article cannot be associated with it; — we say by which any thing is expressed or implied, because, unless that be the case, the article cannot be associated with any word whatever; not even with a participle or an adjective, (such as *σπειρων*, *άγιος*, *σπȣδαιος*, &c.) with which it is so commonly combined. Even here some *thing*, if not expressed, must be implied; and in like manner, every other word, or part of speech, may be so used as to imply, if it does not express, some thing, and consequently may be associated with the article. Apollonius has observed that the article may be added *παντι μερει λογȣ*, to all words, when they are used, as the more modern grammarians express it, *materialiter*; or, as he himself better expresses it, as *λογοι ȣδεν σημαινοντες πλεον, η αυτο μονον το ονομα της φωνης*· (p. 27. edit. Sylburg. Francof. 1590.) In this way, we find the article prefixed, in his own book, not only to the personal pronouns of the first and second persons, when he says *ἡ εγω, της εγω, ἡ συ, της συ*, &c. (pp. 28. 106. 107. 214:) but likewise to the article itself, when he speaks of *το αρθρον το ὁ*· (lib. 1. cap. 41. init. p. 88.) We see not any need, however, of this restriction, or limitation, of Apollonius. The article may be prefixed to every part of speech at other times, as well as when that part of speech is used to denominate itself. Hoogeveen, in his notes on Vigerus, (*de Idiotism.* pp. 22—24. edit. Hermanni. 8vo. Lips. 1802.) has exemplified this remark with regard to every part of speech but conjunctions, which he excepts:—but we perceive no occasion for the exception, since it is very intelligible, and not very uncommon, to hear a person say that he assents to every part of a resolution, or agreement, but the *but*, the *if*, or the *and*; meaning by these conjunctions some exceptive, conditional, or additional clause.

Harris, *jurans in verba magistri*, produces from Apollonius, as instances of words which refuse the article, *αμφοτεροι*, and the personal pronouns of the first and second persons when not used *materialiter*: — but Dr. Middleton (p. 429.) has shewn that this is a mistake as far as it respects *αμφοτεροι*, by refering

Ephes. ii. 14. 16. 18. and by quoting from
80. edit. 8vo. Bipont.) τα αμφοτερα γινωσκει :
add from Homer, Ως τȣς αμφοτερȣς μακαρες θεοι
4.)
uns *I* and *you*, they no more refuse to be
ly, or indefinitely, in or out of their own
er substantives refuse it. Though it be true
such frequent occasion to number them, as
r other substantives in this way, yet it may
ul, or even necessary, to do this. When the
e song awoke, and found her petticoats cu
doubted her identity, reasoning deep, "i
ost," she said, "If I be I," &c. Now wh
ng, "If *the* I, thus woefully cut down,
the I so goodly erst"? &c. — What
eipsum, *nosmet*, *vosmet*, &c. but *the* I, or
yself, what is Virgil's "*Ille ego qui quondam*
&c. except that the pronoun is made *more* d
nstrative than it would be by the article?
ance of a word which refuses the artic
e word *both*. Now it is true that we can
:" but the bad English of this phrase no m
ord *both* refuses the article, than the
ly calls it, of the phrase, "two the me
ord *men* refuses the article. All that
case, is that a wrong arrangement of
de. In the first phrase, *both*, being an
between the article and its substantive;
ing an adjective, *must* stand in that sit

The only other case which Harris mentions, of words which cannot be associated with the article, is that of interrogatives:—but nothing is more common than το ποιον, as every reader of Plato knows;—and in the Port Royal Grammar we have the following instances of interrogatives with the article, from Demosthenes, της ποιας μεριδος; and from Plato, τα ποια τα ταυτα λεγεις; So likewise in Lucian, Mercury, having been informed by Jupiter of the transformation of Io, asks him, τῳ τρωπῳ δ᾽ ενηλλαγη; (vol. 1. p. 207. edit. Reitz, 4to. 1743.) to which many other instances might be added from the same writer.

We may safely affirm, therefore, that there is no word which *cannot* be associated with the article; though some words are more frequently, some not so often, and others very rarely, to be found united with it.

With regard to any supposed power in the article of shewing, or demonstrating, when an adjective in the neuter gender is used in an abstract sense, it is wholly imaginary. The article possesses no such power. It is true that we frequently find it prefixed to a neuter adjective so used: but in that situation we see nothing different in its use from what we see in

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or δι, particles which they used sometimes in an articular and sometimes in a pronominal sense, and might employ the word so compounded to signify *both the*, *both they*, or *both them*; that is, *the*, *they*, or *them*, *both* (adverbially).

Yet we believe that this latter compound was never immediately followed by any substantive to which the word *both* was intended to refer, unless that substantive were used indefinitely. Whenever the word *both* was followed by a substantive definitely understood, we think that the article was always interposed, as a separate and detached word, between *both* and the substantive; and that *both* was formed in that case according to the first mode of composition, and was an adverb. Most commonly, the word, when formed in the latter way, would be used without any substantive, either definite or indefinite, after it; as we find it in most of Johnson's examples.

From not discriminating between these two different modes of compounding and forming the same word *both*, (which in old language was often written *bothe*,) and from not attending to the interposition of the article *the*, which, when it immediately followed *both*, would be easily lost in the rapidity of pronunciation on account of the repetition of the same letters, might arise the inaccuracy of saying, "I have read both poets," instead of saying, "I have read both the poets;" and this inaccuracy would give birth to the notion of *both* being an adjective.

From the phrase "both of them," a person so disposed might conclude, in like manner, that *both* was a substantive, where it seems to be nothing more than the latter composition of the word used in its most common way without any substantive; or, which is the same thing, with an ellipsis of any substantive suited to the occasion.

every

every other. Dr. Middleton, therefore, had no occasion to make it a separate canon, nor Mr. Veysie to make it a separate case. Neuter adjectives are often used in an abstract sense without the article, and in a sense that is not abstract with the article. When the article is prefixed, it shews that such adjectives are used definitely, and it shews nothing else. Their abstract meaning must be collected from the nature of the case, and not from the article.

In the following examples, the adjectives are all used in an abstract sense; though no article is annexed to any of them; *εκκλινατω απο κακυ και ποιησατω αγαθον* (1 Pet. iii. 11.): *Μηδενι κακον αντι κακυ αποδιδοντες* (Rom. xii. 17. 1 Thess. v. 15.): *Προς διακρισιν καλυ τε και κακυ* (Heb. v. 14.): *Ειδεναι γνωστον καλυ και πονηρυ·* (Genes. ii. 9. 17. and iii. 5.) On the other hand, these which we will now subjoin have nothing abstract in their significations, though they all have the article; *το γλυκυ και το πικρον* (James iii. 11.): To *γεννωμενον ἁγιον* (Luke i. 35.): *Μη δωτε το ἁγιον τοις κυσι* (Matt. vii. 6.): T*ο γνωστον τυ Θευ* (Rom. i. 19.): To *εσωτερον τυ καταπετασματος* (Heb. vi. 19.): To *γεννηθεν* (Matth. i. 20.): *Επειπων το κοινον, αρχη δε τοι ἡμισυ παντος* (Lucian *Somn.* Vol. i. p. 5. edit. Reitzii, 4to. 1743); and in a very different application of the same word, *Γενομενων χρηματων μεγαλων εν τῳ κοινῳ* (Herodot. lib. vii. p. 569. edit. Wessel. 1763. fol. and Thucyd. lib. viii. p. 507. edit. Duker. 1731. fol.): *Ὁι περι τας γεωμετριας τε και λογισμυς και τα τοιαυτα πραγματευομενοι, ὑποθεμενοι το τε περιττον και το αρτιον* (Plut. de Repub. lib. vi. sub fin. p. 510. Vol. ii. edit. Steph. 1578. fol. and see the Greek definitions to the 7th book of Euclid's Elements): T*ο ναυτικον . . . . . το πεζον* (Thucyd. lib. vi. p. 397. ejusd: edit. et alibi sæpissime): Tυ *δημοσιυ δραχμην της ἡμερας τῳ ναυτῃ και διδοντος* (Id. ib.).

When the Greek philosophers disputed so vehemently about *το αγαθον*, they meant not *goodness*, not good in an abstract sense, but *the* good which was paramount to every other good,—the *summum bonum*. So in Rom. xiv. 16. *ὑμων αγαθον* does not mean *your good* in the abstract, but that particular good thing which you have above others, *the* good, the blessing, of Christianity, and the freedom which it allowed; which good thing the apostle warns them not to discredit and scandalize by their disputes, so as to make it appear a mere bone of contention, a curse instead of a blessing. Let not the world abuse you, and say that *το αγαθον ὑμων*, the liberty wherewith Christ hath made you free, is like *το αγαθον* of the wrangling Greeks, a cloke of maliciousness, a pretence for reviling one another, a thing that makes you worse, instead of making you better men.

It is to be remarked, also, that of these neuter adjectives with the article prefixed, many, in consequence of being habitually applied as epithets to some particular thing, have, after a time, come to be familiarly used as the name of that thing; as a concrete term for some subject possessing the qualities originally denoted by the adjective. Thus we find *το ἱερον* used for the temple, *το ἁγιον* for the sanctuary, *το θυσιαστηριον* for the altar, *το ἱλαστηριον* for the mercy-seat, *το δαιμονιον* for a dæmon, *το ἡδυοσμον* for mint, *το δημοσιον* sometimes for taxes, sometimes for the treasury, and sometimes for the common jail, &c. &c. Now this could never have happened, if the article had been prefixed for the purpose of shewing that the quality denoted by the adjective was to be taken in an abstract and general sense. That which declared the quality to be abstract would have prevented it from becoming concrete; — that which declared it to be general would have prevented it from becoming particular.

In those examples which Dr. Middleton and Mr. Veysie have chosen to illustrate this rule, we cannot doubt that the adjectives *το σωφρον*, *το ὁσιον*, *το ωφελιμον*, &c. were used in an abstract sense: but how do we obtain our knowlege of the fact, or what does the article effect towards the discovery? Exactly what it does on every other occasion, and no more. — Let us attend a little to the process by which we arrive at the conclusion. Observing that the words are adjectives, we see that some substantives must be understood; — as these adjectives are neuter, the substantives must denote not persons but *things*; — and as articles are prefixed to the adjectives, the substantives must denote *things that are numbered and definite* among other things: — but there is no limit to the number of such things, and nothing is here expressed either by word or circumstance except the adjectives themselves to lead and confine us to any one of these things more than another. Yet unless we fix on some particular one among the endless number, we can make no sense of any of the passages. Now the only way in which we *can* fix on any one of them, and make it particular, is by ascertaining those qualities and properties which distinguish it from the rest; and nothing here is indicative of quality or property but the adjective itself. The mind, therefore, is compelled, by the absence of every other word, to have recourse to the adjective, and to understand for its substantive any thing *whatever* which is distinguished by the qualities and properties denoted by the adjective; or, in other words, to understand the adjective in an abstract sense. The article only shews that the writer means to speak definitely of this abstract quality. Το *σωφρον* shews that he means to speak definitely relate and the correlate, and about relatives which are *in* n but not *ad idem*, that, if other parts of his writings had persuaded us to think better of him, we should be almost pted to suppose that he meant to make " the unlearned ." Let the effect intended be what it may, the effect luced by such *displays* is always to make the truly " learned ie."

he artificial limitations (for they are not natural, since they ot be shewn to have any foundation either in the nature of gs or in the nature of language,) which Mr. Sharp invented the purpose of making his rule absolutely inviolable and f against all possibility of exception, were that the nouns t be personal, singular, and not proper names. All these V. comprehends, as Dr. Middleton had done before him, er the term attributives in the singular number. Of such ibutives, Mr. V. says that if there be ' no express attrion of them to any subject,' and ' no joint reference of them ne and the same correlate,' (that is, if we find such an exsion, for instance, as Ὁ ϑεος και βασιλευς without the adon of any person to whom the title of βασιλευς is attributed, without any previous mention of a βασιλεια, or any thing , to which the epithets have a joint reference,) then, though s most certain that such attributives *often may*, it perhaps y be doubted whether they *always must*, denote one and the e person. His own opinion is that, ' though such a comation of *plural* attributives denoting different things frently occurs, yet if no such combination of *singular* attribus denoting different things can be produced, he should say t in all cases and under all circumstances, singular attributives, combined must, according to the invariable usage of the ek language, belong to one and the same subject.'

Now to require singular attributives, after the frequent protion of plural attributives, seems to us like requiring explès beginning with a particular letter of the alphabet, after production of those which begin with other letters of the habet; or like requiring dissyllables after the production of nosyllables and trisyllables.

Mr. Veysie adds that he ' does not know that any clear and sputable instance of singular attributives, thus combined and oting different things, has ever been produced.' If so, we ot help considering him as unfortunate; and as having looked what is to be seen in every writer concerned in the troversy (except Mr. Sharp himself), whether writing for gainst the rule. The only difference between them is that e who are *for* the rule have endeavoured to explain away instances, while those who are *against* it have defended them.

mination of Dr. Middleton's work,' did Mr.
e instance which that gentleman has pro-
on 1 Pet. ii. 13. viz. φοϐȣ τον Θεον, ὑιε, και
. 21.? Or could he satisfy himself with
ere assigned for deeming this instance in-
ance first produced, among many others, by
f whose pamphlet we gave an account in
6. but which Dr. M. chose rather to keep
to notice? Did Mr. V. overlook the clear
nstance produced by Dr. M. from Hero-
3. edit. Wesseling. τον οινοχοον, και μαγειρον,
διηκονον, και αγγελιηφορον, κ. τ. λ.? Did he
arned writer's other instances? If he did,
m to our 62d volume p. 156. where they
o p. 158. where several additions are made

, as it may, whether Mr. V. did or did not
nstances, it seems to us that he did not feel
at ease respecting the security of the rule;
erected round it by Mr. Sharp had rendered
at need was there for additional outworks to
ger? Yet Mr. Veysie has added farther
which were invented by Mr. Sharp. 'Per-
t may be doubted' whether the nouns as

rovost and senior fellow of Oriel" absolutely *must* denote one nd the same individual, *unless* where the attributives were ointly referred to one and the same correlate, such as *gift*, for instance, or any other, and it were said that "the living of Plymtree is in the gift of the provost and senior fellow of Oriel," yet, if attribution to a subject were expressed, and the senior fellow actually named, thus, "The provost and senior fellow N. or M." * in that case the matter no longer admits of doubt or dispute;—there the combined attributives necessarily belong to one and the same person, and not to different persons.

Verily, this adding of limitation to limitation appeareth to us to be "all vanity and vexation of spirit!" We would advise the advocates for the rule to be contented with *one* limitation, which we are rather surprised that they have not long ago adopted; since it requires no great comprehension of mind to see that it will furnish them with all that they seek, will cut off every example that can possibly lift up its head against the rule, and will render it really inviolable. We would recommend it to them to say that, if one of the nouns be Θεος and the other any personal description of Jesus, in that case they *must* denote one and the same individual. This is a "Short Way," and the only true way, "with the Dissenters."

After having preached so often and so long on the same ubject, we have no doubt that all our readers, as well those vho have as those who have not had the patience to attend to s, will rejoice to find us adopting the words of the oldest and isest of preachers, "Let us hear the conclusion of the whole atter."

This, then, is our summing up;—that the ARTICLE is an *ljective* †;—that its PRINCIPLE is *numerical* ‡;—that this *prin-*

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* We hope that our readers will not fail to observe that these two tters are quoted from the church-catechism, every letter of which, hether more or less intelligible than N. or M. (whose *rationale*, we e forced to confess, we do not thoroughly comprehend, though, as l the world knows, and has known for more than half a century, we nderstand every thing else,) we have felt the utmost anxiety to dis-minate ever since we have been told, as we lately were, in the public apers, by authority which we have been accustomed highly to re-pect, and from which we should be very sorry to "dissent without real cause," that this *national* catechism is so essential to the salva-on both of church and state, that, if it be not invariably taught in e *national* education, church and state will both be ruined, and "the orld turned upside down," (Acts xvii. 6.) by that wicked Quaker, seph Lancaster. Forbid it! oh! forbid it, N. or M.!

† See Rev. Vol. lxii. p. 72. ‡ See ibid. p. 279.

ciple extends both to *the definite and the indefinite* article*;—that its DESIGN, USE, and OFFICE, are to *shew* that the things signified by the *words* to which it is prefixed (or, it may be, affixed, which is the case in some languages †) are *not* to be *understood absolutely* and independently, in the way in which we speak of them when we mention them by their bare names without an article, but *relatively to some other things among which they are numbered* and made either *definite* or *indefinite*, according to the particular article used ‡; — that it *always shews this*, uniformly and invariably, in every instance in which it occurs ||; — that it *never shews any thing more than this*; never shews how, or in what way, or to what extent, or among what other things, the thing mentioned is definite or indefinite; always leaving that to be determined by the nature and circumstances of the case, in which respect it differs materially from the demonstrative and from every other definitive word, all of which not only shew that the thing mentioned is definite, but declare more or less of the way in which it is so §; — that it *may be applied* to

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* See Rev. Vol. lxii. p. 280.

† In the Chaldee and Syriac among the antient, and the Swedish and Basque, or dialect spoken in the neighbourhood of the Pyrenees, among the modern languages. (See Beauzée *Gram. Générale*, Vol. i. p. 313.) Even in the Greek, the article sometimes follows the noun, though it is not actually affixed to it. Thus we have in Homer, ἤματι τῷ. Il. ii. 351. 743.—iii. 189.—v. 210.—vi. 345.—viii. 475.—xi. 444.—and xiii. 234.—πολιν ἐξαλαπαξαι την. Il. iv. 41. and 42. on which see Clarke's note, and compare our note (* p. 176. of our last Number) on the word *some*. Θεαων ταων. Il. v. 331 and 332. Μνηστηρων των. Odys. i. 116. In Pindar, ποσις ὁ Ρεας. Ol. ii. 140.—In Anacreon, καλα χειρα την βουλα, Od. iii. l. 3. Hence it appears that no impropriety can be alleged against calling the article *prepositive*, because, as we here see, it is occasionally *subjunctive*. Indeed, as the Greeks have only one article in their language, we need not give that article any discriminative epithet: even the epithet *definitive*, though just, is useless and unnecessary.

‡ See Rev. Vol. lxii. pp. 278. 280. 281—284. and 395, 396.

|| Ibid. p. 278.

§ See our remarks in refutation of Dr. Middleton's multifarious canons, reasons, or causes for the insertion and omission of the article, and of Mr. Veysie's demonstrative principle, and his different cases, in Rev. Vol. lxii. pp. 146—151. 159—165. 266—276. 395, 396: in our last Number, p. 166—178; and in the present Number, p. 273. 274. 279—282, and 282—285.

In Vol. lxii. p. 280, we have said that the indefinite article alw numbers the noun in its own class. On reconsidering the matt however, we think that an exception must be made of one case, of that in which the noun signifies any thing that is monadic, or t *to all words*, because no word, however definite or indefinite it may be in itself, is of such a nature that the thing signified by it cannot be numbered definitely or indefinitely among other things*; — that its UTILITY consists in its *simplicity*, its *unbounded scope*, and its *conciseness*, by which it enables us to ex-

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is considered as monadic, in its own class. Thus, when we say, "If there be a *God*, he will assuredly reward the good and punish the wicked," *a* God, in this expression, is not understood to mean one among the number of Gods, but one among the number of Beings; and the hypothesis is, if there be such a Being. So again in the expression, "How glorious it is to behold *a* sun rise and set!" *a* sun does not mean one among other suns, but one among other objects of sight, or simply and more generally one among other things, such a thing as *a* sun. These nouns, then, though both indefinite, are numbered each out of its own class.

Agreeably to what is here stated, therefore, if the word *Mars* be monadic, (which we believe most persons now consider it as being, though in antient mythology we find scarcely any deity without his namesake,) "*a* Mars" must mean an indefinite character, and not an indefinite Mars, as we supposed in Vol. lxii. p. 395.; and the difference in the meaning of the two expressions, "Thou art *a* Mars of malcontents," and "Thou art *the* Mars of malcontents," will be this, that the latter will denote a definite character described by a word (Mars,) which must here be supposed to describe no other character than the one in question, because, if it did, that character would not be definite; and the former will denote an indefinite character described by the same word, (Mars,) which here *may*, or *may not*, as it happens, describe other characters than the one in question, because that character is indefinite. Whether a descriptive word thus used with the indefinite article actually *does*, or *does not*, describe other characters besides the one in question, depends on the nature of that word, and on other circumstances of the case. In the example produced above, where *God* was the descriptive word, it cannot, according to the Christian ideas, describe any other Being than the one to whom it is applied. In the example in which *Mars* is the descriptive word, that word is not, though it might be, applied to any other character than the one mentioned; — and in the following example from Prior's parody of Boileau's Ode on the taking of Namur, the descriptive word *Hercules* not only may be, but is in fact, applied to many characters besides the individual who is the nominative to the singular verb: "Each was *a* Hercules, you tell us." It is applied to every soldier in the garrison.

Thus it appears that it is by the nature and circumstances of the case that we must judge whether a noun be numbered in or out of its own class, not only when the article is definite, but when it is indefinite likewise; the latter article never shewing any thing more than that the noun is numbered indefinitely, as the former never shews any thing more than that it is numbered definitely.

* See our observations, pp. 276—279. of this Number.

press

ideas on an infinite variety of occasions, in many of
great beauty, and in all of them with sufficient pre-
make ourselves clearly understood without multiply-
and descriptions, not only in cases in which we do
o discriminate between individuals having many pro-
common (to prevent which multiplication is the use
nd *species*,) but in cases likewise in which we do
nake such discrimination; which we can often do
swer all our purposes, and sometimes so as to save a
rcumlocution, by merely declaring whether, in the
umstances, we understand the thing mentioned de-
indefinitely[*]; — and lastly, that its *nature*, its *prin-*
lesign and office, its *uniformity*, its *simplicity*, its *range*,
tion, and its *utility*, are the SAME IN ALL LANGUAGES
it exists[†].

And

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[*] Rev. Vol. lxii. pp. 279, 280. 281—284, and our last
note * pp. 170—173, and p. 173, 174.
Rev. Vol. lxii. p. 159. and also p. 163, 164. of our last

this mark of reference to this note in note* p. 168. of our last
We know not any language except the English, which has
te article, properly so called; that is, which has a separate

And now we most sincerely hope, as we doubt not that our readers hope also, that *the Land of Articles*, like *the Land of Promise*, may have "*rest for forty years*,"—at least.

⁂ A few

This contrivance, supposing it to be rightly represented, possesses an advantage, in one respect, over our indefinite article; viz. that the *Nunnation* is annexed alike both to plural and to singular nouns, and serves to mark the indefiniteness of the former as well as of the latter, whereas our indefinite article is confined to nouns in the singular number. This restriction probably originated in our indefinite article having been derived from the Saxon numeral for *one*; independently of which circumstance, and of custom, which has given its sanction to the restriction, there seems to be no more reason for confining the indefinite than for confining the definite article to nouns in the singular number. The word *some*, which we use to denote the indefiniteness of plural nouns, is not so well adapted to the purpose as the article would be; because, being more specific, and marking not only the indefiniteness of the nouns, but, as appears from what we have said of the word, (see note * p. 176, 177. last Review,) also pointing out the particular mode and manner of that indefiniteness, it is not so completely indefinite as a mere article, and its application therefore is less general and less extensive.

None of the Arabic grammars that we have seen give the foregoing explanation of the *Nunnation*: but we invite those who are conversant with the language, to consider whether it has not a solid foundation in the nature of Arabic punctuation. If it has, it ought, in future, to be noticed in the grammars.

In most of the languages of modern Europe, the same word is employed to denote the numeral *one* and the indefinite article *a*; in consequence of which, those languages are, in this instance, exposed to all the ambiguity which arises from using one word in a variety of senses, and to other inconveniences. (See Rev. Vol. lxii. p. 283. note, and also note * page 168 of our last Number.) In English, no ambiguity occurs whether we say, "There is *a* God," or "There is *one* God:" every reader understands the first as a declaration of the existence, and the second as a declaration of the unity, of the Deity:—but, in French, if we say "*Il y a un Dieu*," the double meaning of *un* renders it doubtful which of the two declarations is intended; and if we say "*Il n' y a qu'un Dieu*," a doubt still remains, from the same cause, whether we mean to assert the unity of the Deity, or the proposition that "there is but a God," or, in other words, the tenet of "seeing God in all things;" which some enthusiasts have carried to such a pitch of extravagance as to deify every object around them. Custom, it may be said, has appropriated the first of these French expressions to signify the existence, and the second to signify the unity of God. True: but this shews that the ambiguity of the word *un* subjects us to the necessity of learning a *particular*, singular, and arbitrary custom in addition to the *general* import and meaning of the words of the language, before we can understand the phrases in question;—and if these particular customs were

⁂ A few errors of the Press escaped correction in the beginning of this article, in our last Number, viz. P. 170, *note*, l. 23. the final letters of the second and fourth words of the Arabic quotation should have been in each case a *Lam* instead of a *Dal*. — In P. 175. l. 15. from bott. for 1752, read 1572; l. 11. from bott. for μυλων, read μυλωνα; and last line but one, for 'nor,' read *or*: the word *either* being understood. — P. 178. l. 4. for 'nor,' read *not*.

ART.

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but sufficiently multiplied, they would reduce all alphabetical writing to a level with the arbitrary notation of the Chinese; so that the whole of a man's life would not enable him to acquire a tolerable knowlege of his own language.

Notwithstanding this, Mons. Beauzée could not see the difference between the numerical use of the word *un* in the phrase *Il n'y a qu'un Dieu*, and its articular use in the phrase, *Un sujet doit obéir à son prince*. — "*Je ne conçois pas comment* un *ne marque pas toujours* un," says he in his *Grammaire générale*. (Vol. i. p. 390. 8vo. 1767.) He had said just before (p. 386.) that the French word *son* has three different meanings; that it signifies *his*, and *sound*, and *bran*. Had any one here retorted on him, "*Je ne conçois pas comment* son *ne marque pas toujours* son," we think that, if the retort had not shewn him the difference between the numeral *un* and the article *un*, and the weakness of his reasoning (p. 391.) to prove their identity, it would at least have convinced him that there was no great wisdom in his sage remark.

Du Marsais has collected several instances (which may be seen at p. 350. of the second part of his *Logique et principes de Grammaire*, printed in two vols. 12mo. Paris, 1769, after his death, or better and more accurately cited in the *Encyclopédie*, p. 726. col. 2. Vol. i. Paris, 1751, fol. published in his life-time,) in which he thinks that the Latins have used their word *unus* in the sense of the French *un*, when it corresponds to our indefinite article: — but, in all of these, something more is intended by *unus* than is expressed by the article *a*, or the French *un*. The Latin word is designed to convey an idea either of *unity*, singularity, certainty, or uniformity, or of something remarkable, extraordinary, or unique in its kind; to which if the reader does not attend he loses a part of the writer's meaning. It denotes something much more definite than the article *a* does, and comes nearer to the English expression, '*the* one.'

Similar instances might be collected from the Greek; such, F example, as μιλιον ἑν, (Matth. v. 41.) συκην μιαν, (Id. xxi. 19.) παιδισκη, (Id. xxvi. 69.) παιδαριον ἑν, (John vi. 9.) ενιαυτον ἑνα, (Jam iv. 13.) ἑνος αγγελου, (or αετου, as Griesbach has it, Rev. viii. 13 φωνης μιας, (Ib. ix. 13.) εἷς αγγελος, (Ib. xviii. 21.) ἑνα αγγελον, (I xix. 17.) in all of which our translators have rendered the numer by the indefinite article. In the following passages, εἷς γραμμα (Matth. viii. 19.) and μια χηρα, (Mark xii. 42.) they have translat "a certain," which would have better suited some of the form instance

T. VI. *Secret History of the Court of James the First*: containng, I. Osborne's Traditional Memoirs. II. Sir Anthony Welon's Court and Character of King James. III. Aulicus Coquiariæ. IV. Sir Edward Peyton's Divine Catastrophe of the House of Stuarts. With Notes and Introductory Remarks. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 4s. Boards. Ballantyne, Edinburgh; London, Longman and Co. 1811.

'HE late re-publication of the Old Chronicles has brought into vogue the study of our *early* history. By placing them in e libraries of the opulent, access has been facilitated to e original sources of information: a taste for archaiology as gained ground; and numerous readers profit by the pportunity.—The *middle* history of our country is by no eans less worthy of re-examination. Those minor tracts, hich form, however, essential contributions to the entire nowlege of particular reigns, well deserve to be assembled in eparate but connected allotments; so that, without searching hrough the libraries of various collectors, a reading man may be ble to ascertain for himself with what degree of omission, or of artiality, the Rapins and the Humes have digested and aranged the mass of our extant information.

The times prior to the Reformation are rapidly fading on our nterest. Occasionally, a venerable edifice carries back the imagiation to the reign of Henry VII.; and there is much in our aws, and something in our literature, to excite a remoter uriosity: but the active parties of the state, or of the people, tain no traces of the affections or the aversions which preceded he Protestant controversy. That event divided every hamlet, hen it began; and it continues, under the advocates for tablished or for independent systems, to marshal the people opposing ranks. — Utility will be most consulted by selecting r re-impression those tracts which are posterior to the reious schism.

No portion of English History more requires a critical revisal an the reign of Elizabeth: who, because she gave stability the Reformation, has been flattered by the Protestant clergy ith immoral extravagance. In 1558, she caused her accession

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stances, in others of which the rendering should have been *one*, or *single*. In the last two examples, the writer's intention (which we prehend was to lay some stress on the numeral as well as on the bstantives) would be made more visible than it is at present, if they ere to be translated "one a scribe," or "one that was a scribe," nd "one a widow" or "one that was a widow:" but in order to mprehend the full force and import of them, they ought, we think, be rendered "a solitary scribe" and "a solitary widow."

to be notified to the Pope, who gave to her envoy, Carne, rude answer, which stigmatized her with bastardy. The refus of the Pontiff to recognize her title decided her profession protestantism. Yet such was her pitiless cruelty to the sect whic she abandoned less perhaps from conviction than from policy that one hundred and seventy-five Catholic priests, whose name are detailed in Caulfield's History of the Powder-plot, were put to death during her reign, for no other crime than preaching in this country the religion of their fathers. Her political confidence was early and perseveringly given to William Cecil, afterward Lord Burleigh. The character and the actions of this great statesman are sufficiently known to all readers of the History of this country: who will also be aware that Protestant and Catholic writers would give very different representations of him. Yet they would scarcely, perhaps, suppose that the colouring is so strikingly opposite, as they will perceive it to be by comparing the portrait drawn by our best historians with the delineation which, as a matter of curiosity, we shall now submit to them, derived from the controversial writings of some modern English Catholics.

Cecil, say these partizans, first became known as an inferior agent in the capricious oppressions of Henry VIII., who made him keeper of the briefs in the Common Pleas. Having married a daughter of Sir Anthony Cook, preceptor to Edward VI., he was introduced to the Protector Somerset, and employed as his secretary: but when he found his master's credit sinking, he joined the opposite party, and drew up the impeachment which brought his patron to the scaffold. Cecil now became the confidant and assistant of Dudley, was knighted, admitted into the privy-council, and promoted to a situation which enabled him to pay himself for his treachery by extortions from the merchants. On the death of Edward VI. he found himself in the Duke of Northumberland's party; but, perceiving that a total failure awaited that nobleman's designs, he deserted to Queen Mary. In his parish-church at Stamford, he then made a voluntary abjuration of the Protestant religion, by which hypocrisy he imposed on Cardinal Pole and other leaders of the Catholics; and through their aid he secured a seat in parliament for Lincolnshire. On the accession of Elizabeth, the ready renegade again became a Protestant, and took part in the scramble for ecclesiastical property, which had rendere the theological arguments of Cranmer and Bucer so convincing in the parliament of England. — Cecil obtained great part of the endowments of Peterborough cathedral, an certain manors in the Soke which belonged to the see Norwich.

Sir

Such, in brief, is the view which Catholics chuse to take of this celebrated man. The reader who wishes to contemplate it more at large may consult, among other writers, Milner's History of Winchester.

Elizabeth's insolence to the parliament of 1571; her intolerance of puritanism in nominating commissioners in 1584 to proceed by *torture* against the frequenters of prophesyings; her scandalous sale of patents for monopolies, which almost provoked insurrection in 1601; her arbitrary proclamations; her impertinent interference with the marriages of the nobility; all bear the character of an unkind, unprincipled, and inconsiderate despotism.—Her chastity has been strangely celebrated: although she publicly took into keeping the Earl of Essex, a handsome but profligate man, who was said to have broken the neck (p. 86.) of his first, and poisoned the husband of his second wife. In favor of this paramour, Elizabeth confiscated in 1573 the Irish seigniories of Clanneboy and Ferny, granting to him the half. A rebellion ensued, which overspred the whole province of Ulster, when the lord deputy attempted to inforce this violent seizure of landed property. Of Elizabeth's amours with Seymour, Blunt, Nottingham, and others, several anecdotes occur, at p. 76, 79, &c. of Osborne's *Traditional Memoirs*, which are the foremost of the rare Tracts that are collected and republished in the volumes before us.

Francis Osborne, the author of these Memoirs, was the younger son of Sir John Osborne of Chicksand, in Bedfordshire, and attached himself to the Earl of Pembroke, whom he followed into the party of Cromwell. His son John was appointed, in 1648, by the parliamentary visitors, a fellow of Saint John's College; and to this young man Osborne addressed the "Advice to a Son," which was popular among the students, but reprobated by the "godly" clergy. His style abounds with quaint felicities.—Speaking of the puritans, who opposed the discipline and ceremonies of the church, he says, "they made religion an umbrella to impiety." He paints the Scots who followed James the First into England, as persons "by whom nothing was unasked, and to whom nothing was denied." Of Northumberland, he says: "Endeavour failed to find him smutted with the gunpowder-plot." The execution of the Duke of Norfolk is justly reprehended (p. 39.) in the following terms: "Nor was the amorous rather than traitorous blood of the Duke of Norfolk, spilt on the scaffold for her sake, more consonant to justice or the affections of her subjects, though quietly endured, as a number of other particulars which happened in her time, that were not able to make answer or give a perfect account, some to justice, others to discretion."

borne's Memoirs which relates to the time [illegible] s
considerable; and it does not afford an [illegible] y.
articulars respecting them. Hume begin [illegible] ns
beth by transcribing Burnett's and Rapin [illegible] 's
e finds out, in the course of the narrativ [illegible] e,
nplicitly followed party-statements; and h [illegible] he
nd fills the appendix with severe censur [illegible] re.
published the history originally in number [illegible] rs,
ct the earlier part of the account, and rend [illegible] der
he latter.

nes which have attended the reputation of
gns may learn this great lesson, that it [illegible] is
popularity and lasting celebrity to acco [illegible] m-
n religion. The victorious sect never fails [illegible] to
of its patrons, and to provide for equivo [illegible] cal
pplicable colouring of applause. A nim [illegible] bus
around their bloody locks, and their stat [illegible] ues
holy niches, venerated by successive gene [illegible] ra-
ers, who dare not examine their claims [illegible] to

been over-rated, her successor James I. [illegible] had
me wrote, been undervalued. His lite [illegible] ary
contempt, and his moral frailties excite [illegible] an
were in some respects more than comm [illegible] en-

Osborne enumerates among his successive favorites,
Hay, (p. 218.) Philip Herbert, afterward Earl of Mont-
y, (p. 232.) Robert Cane, the Earl of Somerset, (p. 242.)
s, (p. 275.) and others. The attachment to Villiers was
fortunate for the public that he was a young man
omplishment, and was really disposed, as Lord Bacon's
ondence with him proves, to employ his influence over
ng for the good government of the state.

orne thus describes the loungers of the age of James
rst: — sheltered ambulatories for wet weather are
re in London, now that the churches are inacces-
— Exeter-'Change is a miserable likeness of the Palais-

> was the fashion of those times, and did so continue till these
> in not only the mother, but her daughters are ruined) for the
> all gentry, lords, courtiers, and men of all professions, not
> mechanick, to meet in Paul's church by eleven, and walk in
> dle ile till twelve, and after dinner from three to six; during
> time, some discoursed of businesse, others of newes. Now,
> rd of the universall commerce, there happened little that did
> it or last arrive here: And I being young, and wanting a
> dvantagious imployment, did, during my aboad in London,
> was three-fourth parts of the yeare, associate my self at those
> with the choycest company I could pick out, amongst such as
> l most inquisitive after affaires of state; who being then my
> a daily attendance upon a hope (though a rotten one) of a
> preferment, I appeared the more considerable, being as ready
> ify, according to my weak abilities, their curiosity, as they
> ine: who, out of a candid nature, were not ordinarily found
> e an author, easily lost in such a concourse, where his own
> was not seldome within few minutes returned to him for newes
> ther. And these newesmongers, as they called them, did not
> ke the boldnesse to weigh the publick, but most intrinsick
> of the state, which some courtier or other did betray to this
> ; amongst whom divers being very rich, had great summes
> them by such as stood next the throne, who, by this meanes,
> ndered in a manner their pensioners, so as I have found since
> ason to question the truth of what I heard then, but much to
> e me in it; wherefore the bolder to insert a report then cur-
> hich was, the King thought Northumberland too intimate with
> ne Henry, who, in vindication of this earles persecution, cast
> nant aspect upon the houses of Suffolke and Salisbury, thought
> s avertible but by his death.'

To the Memoirs of Osborne, succeeds a reprint of the
and Character of James by Sir Anthony Weldon. He
e of the clerks to the board of Green Cloth under James
rst, and accompanied the King into Scotland: but, having
n a satirical account of that province, which was handed

about, the king in displeasure ordered him to be dismissed. He afterward sided with the parliament against Charles, and was one of the committee for the sequestration of royalists. He has not the eloquence nor the trust-worthiness of Osborne, but he preserves some curious anecdotes.— Many corrective and illustrative animadversions have been attached by the editor to the present republished text.

Weldon's *Court of King Charles* is less libellous, and less rich in personal scandalous anecdote, than the preceding sketch of the court of James. Indeed, Charles was a more respectable man than his father; a higher tone of morality prevailed among his companions; and in Wentworth and Laud, he chose men of talents for his counsellors. His great error consisted in listening to a high-church party, which has always had opponents among the people of England; and which was especially offensive at that time among the puritans, who were the growing sect. All religionists, in proportion to their sincerity, must be impatient of the interference of government with creeds. The practice, so completely successful in Holland and Germany, of endowing two or more hostile sects out of the public income, had not yet occurred to the English magistrate as the likeliest method of allaying and reconciling animosity. It was still hoped to bring all within a common pale. Uniformity in religious opinion was the *unallurable* phœnix, for which reformation professed to spread her nets: but that bird of paradise perches not among men.

With aukward anachronism, Weldon's *Perfect Description of Scotland*, the earliest of his tracts, is here printed after his *Court of Charles*. It is a satirical picture of North Britain, at the period of the accession of James to the British throne. It displays turns which Churchill might have envied, and which indeed are fitter for the hyperbolic character of poetry, than for sober prose: the author's style of writing is brilliant and humorous, more so than in the works of his old age.

The Scotish religion is thus satirized:

'The scriptures, say they, speak of deacons and elders, but not a word of bishops. Their discourses are full of detraction; their sermons nothing but railing; and their conclusions nothing but heresies and treasons. For the religion they have, I confess they have it above reach, and, God willing, I will never reach for it.

'They christen without the cross, marry without the ring, receive the sacrament without repentance, and bury without divine service; they keep no holy days, nor acknowledge any saint but S. Andrew, who, they say, got that honour by presenting Christ with an oaten cake after his forty days fast. They say likewise, that he that translated the Bible was the son of a maultster, because it speaks of a miracle done by barley loaves, whereas they swear they were oaten cakes, and that no other bread of that quantity could have sufficed so many thousands.

'They use no prayer at all, for they say it is needless; God knows their minds without pratling, and what he doth, he loves to do it freely. Their sabbaths exercise is a preaching in the forenoon, and a persecuting in the afternoon; they go to church in the forenoon to hear the law, and to the crags and mountains in the afternoon to louse themselves.

'They hold their noses if you talk of bear-beating, and stop their ears if you speak of a play. Fornication they hold but a pastime, wherein mans ability is approved, and womans fertility discovered. At adultery they shake their heads; theft they rail at; murder they wink at; and blasphemy they laugh at; they think it impossible to lose the way to heaven, if they can but leave Rome behind them.

'To be opposite to the Pope is to be presently with God: to conclude, I am perswaded, that if God and his angels, at the last day, should come down in their whitest garments, they would run away, and cry, The children of the chappel are come again to torment us, let us fly from the abomination of these boys, and hide ourselves in the mountains.'

III. The next Tract is the *Aulicus Coquinariæ* of Goodman, Bishop of Gloucester: whom Laud persecuted for dissenting from the canons of 1640; and whom the republicans persecuted for being a loyalist. Ruined, and reduced to great necessity, he gradually embraced the Roman Catholic faith, and died in that persuasion, in January 1655. This piece is not given as Goodman wrote it, but as Sanderson, who revised it for the press, has chosen to publish it. The many corrections which it contains, of Weldon's rash and partial assertions, make the perusal of it a duty: but the arts of authorship have not rendered it a pleasure.

IV. A fourth Tract is the *Divine Catastrophe of the House of Stuart*, by Sir Edward Peyton. He was bred at Bury, finished his education at Cambridge, was knighted at Whitehall in 1610, and served in parliament for Cambridgeshire from the 18th of James I. to the 3d of Charles I. The Duke of Buckingham deprived him of some local office, which occasioned his siding with parliament against Charles: but, during the civil war, he was repeatedly plundered by both parties. His first wife was Matilda, daughter of Robert Livesay; and by her he had two sons, of whom the younger was brought up to the church. He died in 1657: having published, five years before, the propitiatory offering to the rulers of the day which is here reprinted.

Some imputations are cast by Peyton (p. 399.) on the chastity of the wife of Charles I.: but, in general, we meet with more of declamation, or argument, than of historic fact in his diatribe. Numberless petty parallelisms with the events of the French revolution give some interest to the retrospection. We discover the same solicitude on the part of the leaders, justly or unjustly to impute adultery to the Queens of the reigning family, in order to destroy the prejudice of birth, and the sanctity of hereditary right. We observe the same vain-glorious boast that all Europe would imitate their conduct, and *get up* in their respective tongues the same tragedy: "It is probable", says Peyton, (p. 446.) "that the determination of God is to destroy all monarchy in christendom." We see the same jealousy of the metropolitan corporation (p. 429.) among the representatives of the people;—and the same ultimate recurrence to the military despotism of the most fortunate General of the time, as the only defence left against total anarchy. The virtue of Cromwell, in not laying a train for hereditary power in his family, deserves regard.

V. The fifth and concluding Tract is the *Court and Kitchen of Elizabeth*, commonly called Joan Cromwell, the wife of the late usurper. It is stated that, on her arrival in London, (p. 485.) the middle sort of the religiously fanatic sent her Westphalian hams, neats' tongues, puncheons of brandy, tierces of French wine, runlets and bottles of sack, and all sorts of preserves and comfits, to save her the trouble of the town; the most of which gifts, being multiplied on her, she retailed by private hands, at as good a rate as the market would afford. Her public retinue was very slender, and as slenderly accoutred; 'no more, commonly, than one of her husband's house-boys running by her, with or without livery.' Her daughters, however, 'were otherwise vested and robed; and a constant expense was allowed in tire-women, perfumers;' &c. Each also had a maid and a valet to attend her; and by their array and deportment, their quality might have been conjectured. Mrs. Cromwell, says the author, 'very providentially kept two or three cows in St. James's park, and erected a new office of a dairy in Whitehall, and fell to the old trade of churning butter; nor were Oxford Kate's fine things half so famous among the cavalier ladies, as my lady-protector's butter among the mushroom ladies of the republican court.'—'Next to this covy of milk-maids, she had another of spinsters and sowers, who were all of them minister's daughters, and sat the most part of the day in her privy chamber sowing and stitching.' 'She was once resolved to have made a small brewing-place, as not liking the city-brewing, but about that time a drink grew famous in London, being a very small ale of seven and six-pence a barrel which was called Morning Dew, and came into request at court.'

One day, as the Protector was 'private at dinner,' he called for a Seville orange to a loin of veal; which his wife checked saying

ing that oranges were oranges now, that crab-oranges cost ;roat, and she never intended to give it. As to suppers, y had none, (p. 505.) ' eggs and some slaps contenting omwell and her ladyship;—in lieu thereof, for the family :re was constantly boiled eight stone of beef early in the rning, the broth whereof, and all the scraps and reliques dinner, were alternately given to the poor of St. Margaret's estminster and St. Martin's in the fields, according to the urchwarden's roll of each parish, and that very orderly and thout any *crabble* or noise.'

This compilation is on the whole a desirable book in an his-rical library. The annotations of the anonymous editor are t numerous, but they occur in the right place, and are cri-ally accurate. We should have preferred the insertion of borne's entire works: he is a good prose-writer; and the *dvice to his Son*, which is omitted, pictures the tone of the ;e:—we should also have preferred a strictly chronologic ar-ngement of Sir Anthony Weldon's Works, beginning with is *Picture of Scotland*;—and, finally, we should have desired continuance of the same-sized type. The *Court of Joan omwell* is given in smaller letter than the rest; and had is character been used throughout, it would have enabled e printer, at the same expence, to provide a more complete llection.

RT. VII. *A Picturesque Voyage to India; by* the way of China. By Thomas Daniell, R. A. and William Daniell, A. R. A. Large 4to. 12l. Half-bound. Longman and Co. &c.

o European eyes, Oriental Scenery has a very marked and peculiar character, arising not only from the plants which nstitute the foliage of the landscape, but from the style of chitecture which pervades the buildings. That the public e much indebted to the pencil of the Messrs. Daniells, for umerous beautiful views of interesting objects in this quar-r of the globe, all persons who have frequented the Exhibi-ns at Somerset House must be ready gratefully to bear wit-ss; and since fine paintings are beyond the reach of the great ajority of amateurs of the arts, we are happy to inform them at these gentlemen have executed designs on a scale of expence hich is adapted to the pockets of those who cannot purchase rge pictures. Even a long series of richly tinted etch-gs, however, cannot be bought for a trifle; though the sum quired for them bears a very small proportion to that which ust be paid for similar representations on a grand scale in oil. t taking this opportunity of announcing *A Picturesque Voyage* *to India* by the Messrs. Daniells, we would offer them our best thanks for the high gratification which their productions have often afforded us; and though we may not be able to augment their fame, we shall at least have the satisfaction of paying some tribute to their pre-eminent genius and exertions, by which the romantic scenery and stupendous antiquities of India have been brought home to our contemplation. A small portion, indeed, of their labours is now before us: but the style of execution is extremely creditable to their taste, and is a fai specimen of the whole.

The volume, which exhibits fifty coloured etchings of view taken during a voyage to India and China, is introduced by short preface, and contains also brief explanations subjoine to the plates. From the former we extract some remark which will elucidate the objects of the work, and shew th the Messrs. Daniells are not less sensible as authors than i genious as artists:

'It was an honourable feature in the late century, that the pa sion for discovery, originally kindled by the thirst for gold, was e alted to higher and nobler aims than commercial speculations. Sin this new era of civilization, a liberal spirit of curiosity has prompt undertakings to which avarice lent no incentive, and fortune anne no reward; associations have been formed, not for piracy, but h manity: science has had her adventurers, and philanthropy h achievements; the shores of Asia have been invaded by a race of st dents with no rapacity but for lettered relics; by naturalists, who cruelty extends not to one human inhabitant; by philosophers, a bitious only for the extirpation of error, and the diffusion of trut It remains for the artist to claim his part in these guiltless spoli tions, and to transport to Europe the picturesque beauties of the favoured regions. The contemplation of oriental scenery is interes ing to the philosophic eye, from the number of monuments, a other venerable objects which still exist in those ever celebrat countries, and which cast a gleam of traditionary light on the o scurity of departed ages. Happily for curiosity, these vestiges a often elucidated by the manners of the present inhabitants, who wi unexampled fidelity have preserved their primitive customs uni paired by time or conquest; and their domestic institutions still p sent the image of a remote and almost obsolete antiquity. There a other associations of sentiment, which in this country, must lend oriental scenery peculiar attractions; a large part of Hindoostan now annexed to the British empire; and it cannot but afford gratifi tion to our public feelings to become familiar with a country which we are now attached by the ties of consanguinity and affecti There are, perhaps, few of us who have not been impelled by stron motives than curiosity to trace the progress of an Indian voyage; a to acquire some local ideas of those distant regions which it has b the fortune of our friends or relatives to explore. To assist imagination i [illegible] ratic flight is the object of the followi

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work: delineation is the only medium by which a faithful description can be given of sensible images; the pencil is narrative to the eye; and however minute in its relations, can scarcely become tedious; its representations are not liable to the omissions of memory, or the misconceptions of fancy; whatever it communicates is a transcript from nature.'

Nothing is required to be added to this explanatory preface; and we shall therefore proceed to mention the subjects of most of the engravings, and to give a few specimens of the illustrations. Perhaps the plates representing *Gravesend* and the passing of *Beechy-head* might have been omitted, and the views intitled *Madeira* and *Off Madeira* have commenced the series: but, by an error of the press (no doubt), the artists have given a strange representation of the temperature of this beautiful island, when they say that 'the thermometer is never higher than 25 in the shade,' instead of 75. — *Crossing the Line* next occurs, and the letter-press accompanying this plate is explanatory of the humorous nautical ceremony which takes place on this occasion, and which the drawing represents. Next succeed *Gale off the Cape of Good Hope,—A man overboard,* (the seaman represented in this plate unfortunately perished,) — *Cape of Good Hope,* (here the Table-mountain, which is 3316 feet high, is exhibited in a beautiful point of view, rising above Cape-town,) —*The Albatross, or Dioniedia exultans,* — *Java Head,* — *Malay Prows and Canoes,* — and *Anjere Point, Straits of Sunda.* The letter-press appended to this last mentioned plate contains the following account:

'Anjere Point is on the Java side, half way up the Straits of Sunda; it opens on a range of mountains, some of them rising abruptly in double ridges from the ocean, and others stretching out to the eastern boundary of the horizon. At the distance of some miles from Anjere Point are two small islands called the Cap and Button, which are usually visited by voyagers; unlike the Coralline isles they present steep precipitous banks, and from other circumstances in their configuration are supposed to be of volcanic origin. In the Cap are two caverns open to the sea, constantly frequented by those grey swallows, whose delicate nests form a favourite article of Chinese luxury, and a profitable branch of Javanese commerce. These curious little fabrics are of an oval shape, arranged in regular rows, composed of fine filaments, cemented together by viscous matter.—These nests, when white and transparent, are said to be worth their weight in silver.'

The *Dutch Residence at Anjere Point* is a plate containing much picturesque beauty; and the same may be asserted of the next, the *Watering Place at Anjere Point.* This spot is not far distant from the city of Batavia, in the vicinity of which grow 'the nutmeg-tree, the olive, the cinnamon, the camphortree, the pepper-plant, a species of vine whose pungent leaf is the betel, so universally used in the east, and the areca nut-tree, the smallest of the palms, representing a beautiful miniature of the gigantic cabbage-tree, often the object of admiration in the West Indies.' Of Batavia, the writers observe that it 'suggests the melancholy idea of a garden blooming on a grave; the earth teems with delicious fruits, but the air is loaded with pestilential vapours, and vegetation seems to flourish at the expence of human life.'

Of the pleasing view of a *Malay-village*, the text gives us this account:

> 'The Malay Doosoons or villages are frequently situated on the borders of a lake, and generally command an eminence difficult of access. Their houses are raised from the ground on posts or standards, in the manner of the granaries in England; the frames are of wood; the flooring consists of layers of bamboo, over which is a lath of bamboo split thin, and tied down with the filaments of the rattan. This elastic floor is covered with mats of various kinds. The sides of the house are closed in with paloopo, which is the bamboo half split, opened, and rendered flat, by notching the circular joints within side, laying it to dry in the sun, pressed down with weights. The houses are commonly covered with the altass, a species of palm-leaf; the larger houses have three pitches in the roof; the middle one, under which the door is placed, being much lower than the other two; in smaller houses there are but two pitches, and the entrance is in the smaller which covers a kind of hall or cooking-room. The ascent to these dwellings is by a light scaling ladder of notched bamboo, which is seldom fastened to the timbers, and is sometimes taken in at night, to guard against the sudden incursions of ferocious animals. The furniture is simple as the edifice; the bed is no other than a fine mat; with pillows embellished with some shewy material resembling foil; a canopy composed of party-coloured cloth is suspended over the head; neither chairs nor tables are necessary articles to the Javanese, who sit on the floor reclining on the left side, supported on the left hand. With the use of knives and spoons they are wholly unacquainted; they use salvers called the doolong, which move on feet; on these are placed the cross waiters, and in them are the cups containing their curry and rice, which at their meals is always taken up between the right thumb and fingers. The houses have not the convenience of chimneys; the fire-places are formed of loose bricks or stones arranged on the landing place before the door.'

Then follow delineations of *Malay Prows*,—*Malays of Java*,—*Chinese trading and fishing Vessels*,—*Macao, China*,—a *Chinese Husbandman* *,—*Hotun, on the Canton river*, where for the first time the pagoda is introduced, and we are told that ‘ the la is an object familiar in Chinese landscapes, though it not appear that these religious-looking edifices are coned to either public or private worship.’—*Chinese Vessels.* again we must pause to transcribe :

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* In describing this plate, it is mentioned that 'Danes Island, whence the view is taken, is an islet of small extent, not far from Whampoa,

> he Chinese are equally ignorant of geography and navigation ; ave no methods for discovering the latitude and longitude of nt places, and always, if possible, keep close to the shore. essels exhibited in the plate are evidently ill adapted to a long e ; nor is the three-masted junk, presented in a preceding plate, ructure to contend with the tremendous gales so frequently enced in the Chinese seas. The hull of these junks is of a l form ; the fore part, instead of being round, as is usual with ean vessels, is square and flat like the stern, and both are ele- far above the deck ; it is without a keel, and the diameter of ainmast is sometimes equal to that of an English man of war, of guns. The sails are wrought from the fibres of the bamboo, e often furled and unfurled like a fan ; the rudder is placed in ning of the stern, and is usually taken up in sands and shallows. quently happens that one of these junks is the common concern undred merchants, whose goods are lodged in separate compart- . A ship of the largest size carries one thousand tons and five ed men, each of whom has his humble birth, containing a mat pillow. The compass is placed before an altar, on which a taper, composed of wax, tallow, and sandal-wood-dust, and d into twelve equal divisions ; which are intended to measure e progress of the hours. Numbers of these vessels sail every from Canton on commercial expeditions ; and it is computed ten thousand seamen perish annually in the Chinese seas. No mbarks on this perilous enterprize without taking a solemn ell of his family and friends ; and should it be his fate to return, storation is joyfully celebrated as a resurrection from death. uld perhaps be impossible to discover a man, who, like Sind- ad made a seventh voyage. In one or two passages to Bata- e adventurer makes his fortune ; the only object sufficiently ating to draw him from his native home.’

inese Tomb, — *Chinese Gentleman and Lady,* — *Scene on the m River,*—*A Chinese Fort,*—*South-west view of Canton,*— *se Junks,* — *Chinese Pavilion,* — *An offering to the God of* An explanation of the ceremony represented in this is thus given :

> ome years since at Canton, when some junks had been acci- lly burnt in the river, it was deemed expedient to offer a pro-

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mpoa, chiefly remarkable for being the rendezvous of European emen who have concerns of honour to discuss : a circumstance ll understood, that at Canton the laconic style of a challenge is, ns Island, Sir !”

pitiatory sacrifice to the genius of fire. The scene is on the banks the Tigris. On the shore is placed a large tray, in which are a ranged the cups and saucers containing the sacred oblations; abo it is suspended a large lanthorn, to which many smaller ones are a tached; the smoke is produced by the combustion of paper; th persons bending before the tray, in an attitude of supplication, ar merchants solicitous to appease the vindictive deity; behind them i a group, composed of six priests clothed in red, attended by musi cians, playing on the patterra, and the gong, or loo. At the conclu sion of the ceremony, the tea, rice, and sweetmeats, contained i the cups, are consumed. The Chinese have no religious assemblies, nor any stated seasons for public or private worship. They repair to the temples, which are always open, as often as they are prompted by hope or fear to invoke the favour of their respective deities.'

In the account of 'a Chinese Gentleman,' it is remarked that 'Literature is seldom cultivated for amusement; and authors are said to be more numerous than readers.'

Coast of Cochin China,—Pedro Branco,—Cape Rirardo, Straits of Malacca,—Fowl Island, Bay of Bengal,—(Ava is erroneously called, in the explanation of this plate, the Bisman instead of the Birman empire.)—*Scene near Ganwancolly on the Hooghly,—View of Calcutta from the Garden reach of the Hooghly river,—Old Fort Gaut, Calcutta,* within the walls of which is the Black Hole, so mournfully eternized by the sufferings of Mr. Holwell and his ill-fated companions in 1756.

We have not transcribed the titles of all the plates: but our enumeration is sufficiently complete, and our extracts from the letter-press are perhaps sufficiently ample, to enable the purchasers of works of this kind to form an idea of the entertainment which they may expect from this splendid volume. We recollect to have heard our ingenious friend Mr. de Loutherbourg, recently deceased, speak in terms of the warmest commendation of the delineations of Eastern scenery by the pencils of the Messrs. Daniells; and had he been alive, he would have derived pleasure from the praise which we have here bestowed on them: but, since this volume has been lying on our table, he has been taken from that world of which he so glowingly delineated the striking features; and before this article can be printed, his ashes will occupy the same church-yard which contains those of Hogarth. The arts will certainly mourn over his tomb; though he will not, perhaps, be so fortunate as to have another Garrick, to write for it an epitaph so beautiful and appropriate as that which was inscribed on the monument of the "Great painter of mankind."

To facilitate consultation, a list of the plates should have been and they should have been numbered.

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ure of reforms is pure, and nothin
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s only three chapters: the firs
four classes, the *agreeable*, th
tely useful. These differe
to the author, require differ
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to invalidate it; and why, he asks, 'has he not a function to exercise in the case of a new creation?'

These considerations form the substance of the first b the second volume. In the course of it, the author di the subject of rewards to informers, and of those whi offered to accomplices. Beccaria condemns the latter, is here completely refuted. We must not attempt an a of the seventeen chapters which compose this book; a whole is so connected together, that, in endeavouring to certain passages, we perceive that we are able to gi readers only incoherent and imperfect ideas. All hangs to as in a well compacted building; and yet every separa ject is exhibited with the greatest clearness. The basis work is not abstracted. It is founded on familiar an known ideas; and it is rendered highly interesting by number of curious historical traits, as well as by a com of the usages of different nations with respect to the e ment of rewards. This rich collection of examples and il tions forms a striking feature of the production; and the facts have been supplied by the annals of all countri application of them is almost constantly made to ou laws and customs;—England is ever under our eye. most interesting of the chapters, in this respect, is that treats on injurious rewards. 'An injurious reward,' we ar 'is one which generates crimes or vicious dispositions. one of those delicate subjects on which it is better to exc reader to reflection, and to put him into a way of makin coveries himself, than to attack established opinions or p ful interests. I shall confine myself to such instances quire only to be stated in order to shew their injurious ten The following maxim is a never failing rule by which w discriminate good and evil in this respect: "in all m avoid every thing in the form of a recompence, which give the functionary an interest that is contrary to the good."'

According to this rule, no judge should have any inte prolonging suits, nor a minister in favouring war, nor lector in swelling expence, nor a teacher of morality in s an example of falsehood, nor men of learning and lite in supporting dangerous prejudices.—Do we assert th legislator ought always to connect interest with duty, more incumbent is it on him to avoid all that would di those principles, all that turns reward against the service, a gives the public functionary a profit, be it certain or casual, k or unknown, resulting from the omission or violation duty. The author instances the sums allotted to our su

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judges for carrying records into courts of appeal, which is most generally a process instituted for delay; and the profits which Masters in Chancery derive from delays.

> 'We cannot,' proceeds Mr. Bentham, 'but be terrified in perusing the list of functionaries, high and low, who regard war as their prey. Who can tell how far these personal interests affect the most important determinations? I do not accuse Ministers, Generals, Admirals, and Representatives of the people, of suffering themselves to be seduced by vile pecuniary interest:—a general imputation of this sort would be a satire: but these motives are the more dangerous as they operate less openly, and, if they cannot be abolished, they ought not to be increased; for if the probity that braves temptations is the most heroic, that which shuns them is the most secure, while the weakness which is overcome by them is the most common.
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> 'We have in Europe a famous university, to which distinguished youth resort to finish their education. When the young candidate presents himself to be received, his preceptor and the Vice-chancellor present to him the book of statutes, which he swears to observe: yet the youth, and the tutor, and the Vice-chancellor, are all sensible that the statutes cannot be observed, and that they are without scruple violated by those who live under them. Thus the first lesson which the youth learns is a lesson of perjury; — and this is not all. The second step is to subscribe, in testimony of belief, a symbol of doctrine, composed more than two centuries ago, consisting of a set of propositions which are infallibly true in one country, but infallibly false in another. By these, one class of men is rejected and three are admitted; viz. 1. those who believe the propositions; 2. those who believe the contrary; and 3. those who would sign the Koran in the same manner, without even asking themselves what they think of them, and who know not what they are. Socrates was accused of corrupting youth. What it was to which this accusation referred, I have never learned: but I would say that it is to corrupt youth to teach them, that there are oaths which do not bind, scruples which must be overcome, solemn acts which must be performed merely as matters of imitation and without examination, and that our consciences must be placed in the hands of our superiors.
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> 'Many men, for a slight personal advantage, would without scruple do all in their power to promote a war which should cost two or three hundred thousand lives; yet among these men is to be found scarcely one who, setting aside all fear from human laws, would attempt any thing against the life of a single individual, — still less against a relation whose death would make his fortune.'

In treating of the choice of rewards, in the 9th chapter, the author represents the most eligible to be those which possess qualities corresponding with the qualities that intitle punishments to a preference: rewards, he adds, will better answer the desired purpose, the more they are divisible, commensurable, economical, exemplary, analogous, popular, and productive. When thus circumstanced, they will be the better adapted to call forth the perseverance of the individual, and to insure its continuance.

'Analogy has sometimes a very pointed effect of this nature. The law of this country, besides other rewards, gives to the person who takes a highway-robber the horse on which he rode when committing the offence. We might suppose that the legislator had in his mind the fine lines of the Roman Poet,

> "*Vidisti, quo Turnus equo, quibus ibat in armis,*
> *Aureus? ipsum illum clypeum cristasque rubentes*
> *Excipiam sorti, jam nunc tua præmia, Nise.*"

'How ingenious is this device! The reward presents itself fully in view at the moment of the struggle; and interest backs the motive of honour. The animal thus conferred is a testimony borne to activity and prowess; it is a trophy of victory; and it furnishes a constant occasion for the captor to relate his exploit. I dwell the more on this circumstance, because British legislation cannot boast of other similar traits. Characterized by fairness and good sense, it is always in the style of mediocrity, and seems to shrink from attempts to quit the beaten track; it is too modest to attempt those masterly strokes, and those rare felicities, which communicate the impression of the great and the sublime.

'In the Roman system of rewards, examples of this sort were numerous. Each species of exploits had its appropriate reward; and there were symbolical crowns, such as the besieging, the mural, the civic, &c. This custom preserved for a long time the antient simplicity of the republic; and a sprig of parsley effaced the splendor of crowns of gold. I was about to speak of her triumphs; but I stop short, and call to recollection the pride of victory trampling on conquered nations. Let legislation encourage a military spirit, which doubtless is requisite, but let it not be made the paramount passion of a people!'

The second book treats of salaries. Here the author introduces a distinction which at first view appears to be too subtile, but, by attentively following him, we perceive its soundness and its importance:

'Salary,' he says, 'is not a recompence, nor does it produce the same effects. If a salary which is connected with a function were [illegible] recompence for the services derived from it, the more we augmented the salary, the greater would be our chance of increasing the efforts of the functionary, and of carrying the service to the highest perfection possible. Let us imagine a moral thermometer. If fifty pounds occasion the exertions and diligence of a parish-minister to rise to five degrees, five thousand pounds would cause the same virtues to rise in an Archbishop to 100 degrees.'

Without following the author in this admirable illustration, we may state that his conclusion is irresistible: viz. The salary being always the same, whether the service be well or ill performed, if the functionary exerts himself to the utmost, his efforts are not owing to the salary.

Mr. B. next lays down rules, and enters into explanations, the principal object of which is to shew in what manner salaries should be connected with functions, in order to combine most intimately the interest of the functionary with his duty.

With great reason, we think, the author is an advocate for the venality of offices to a certain extent. This mode of considering the subject is new in our country, and it will doubtless surprize many readers: but we have no doubt that, when the object is perfectly considered, nothing will appear more clear than that it is a matter of justice, and a highly convenient regulation, to put up to sale a certain portion and description of public offices; and that such a regulation arises out of the nature of things, and would in a degree extinguish mischievous patronage and form a fund for the increase of rewards.—Mr. Bentham discusses, in his usual able manner, the beaten subject of farming the revenue, or of collecting it according to the present mode. In some branches, the practice of farming it is highly convenient: but, independently of the abuses by which it has been always accompanied, and the strong aversion to it that is entertained, we conceive that insuperable objections to it as a general system may be urged.—Nothing is more admirable than all that is here thrown out on the subject of economical reform. The patriotism of the author is of the most glowing kind, and his whole performance is one continued attack on abuses: but, while he effectually exposes them, the circumstances which accompany them are not overlooked by him, and he gives them due consideration. He is laudably anxious that his reforms should be mingled with no injustice; and while he would have the public interest paramount, he would not violate any private rights, nor disappoint any fair and justly founded expectations. No reforms are to be introduced at the expence of private interests. Indemnity to the individual is never overlooked by this benevolent philosopher; and private rights are held sacred. 'If,' he says, 'in our reforms we lose sight of private security, the remedy is converted into poison, and the reformer becomes an executioner.'

The excellent ideas of Mr. Bentham on this topic are contained in a passage taken from the *Traités de Législation*, in which he exposes the unfeeling and iniquitous maxims that were followed by our neighbours; which, we fear, some among ourselves would be ready, had they the power, to put in practice:

'Shall it be said that the immediate abolition of places is a gain to the public? this is a sophism. The sum in question would no doubt be a gain, if it came from any other source, or if it was realized by commerce or in any other just way: but it is no gain to the public, when it is wrung from individuals who form a part of that very public. Would a family be the richer, because a father took from one of the children his portion, in order to increase the fortunes of the others! The profit of an abolished place is divided between the whole public, but the loss presses on an individual; the gain is not perceptible, but the loss causes destruction. If we abolish all useless places, and make no compensation to the holders, what is the consequence? The streets are crowded with the despoiled citizens, exhibiting marks of indigence, while we scarcely see an individual whose condition the change has benefited. The groans of sorrow and the cries of despair resound from every quarter; while the benefit, being so minutely divided, is hardly perceived. If joy is professed, it arises not from the sense of good effected, but is a malignant satisfaction occasioned by surrounding misery.

'What is done in order to deceive the people on the occasions of these acts of flagrant injustice? Recourse is had to pompous maxims, which have a mixture of truth and falsehood, and give to a question, which is extremely simple in itself, an air of profundity and mystery. The interest of individuals, say the advocates for this inhuman reformation, ought to yield to that of the public: but is not one individual as much a part of the public as another? What is this public interest; is it not made up of the mass of private interests? All these private interests ought to be considered, instead of regarding, as these unfeeling reformers do, a part of them as the whole, and another part of them as nothing. The interest of each individual is sacred, and not to be tarnished, or the interest of no one is thus to be regarded. Individual interests are the sole real interests.—Have a care of individuals! Do not disturb them, nor suffer their rights on any account to be invaded, and you will have done enough for the public. On a multitude of occasions, men who have suffered by the operation of certain laws have not dared to assert what their rights were, or have been refused a hearing on account of this false and pernicious construction of the maxim that private ought to yield to public good. Treat it as a question of generosity, whom does it become to exercise it? All towards one, or one towards all? Who is the most selfish; he who desires to keep what he has, or he who would seize by force what another possesses? An evil felt and a benefit not felt,—behold the result of those boasted operations which sacrifice individuals to the public.'

If reforms were always thus guarded, how little would they be to be dreaded, and how many objections of the advocates of corruption would be silenced! Where the talents are so distinguished, it is pleasing to see the feelings so fine and unadulterated; and having so many occasions for extolling the author's head, we are rejoiced to find that the heart deserves not less praise.—We have not yet done with this interesting part of the volume. In concluding his view of reforms, the author adds; 'it was thus that Leopold proceeded, when Grand Duke of Tuscany.

Notwithstanding the numerous reforms effected by that Prince, all Tuscany did not possess a single individual who had not compensation made to him for any loſs which he suffered from the change. If his place was abolished, he received a sum for his life equal to its salary, by way of pension. Proceeding in this manner, the pleasure of reforms is pure, and nothing is committed to hazard; if no good be done, the principal object is secured; no attack is made on individual happiness.'

Book III. treats of the encouragement of the arts and sciences. It contains only three chapters: the first dividing the arts and sciences into four classes, the *agreeable*, the *curious*, the *immediately* and the *remotely useful.* These different branches of knowlege, according to the author, require different attentions from the administrators of government.—Some excellent observations on the agreeable arts and sciences are followed by a brief tirade against literary criticism, which is as extravagant as any thing that has ever been produced by passion and ignorance. According to what is laid down in these pages, it would be pedantic, and even mischievous, to make any distinction between this author's incoherent crude effusions, and the valuable digested and arranged matter which the incomparable patience and industry of M. Dumont have extracted out of them; and which is set off by a style that unites the utmost perspicuity and precision with extreme neatness and felicity. *The fact* alone could make it credible that the powerful and enlightened mind, which produced the excellent matter on which we have been commenting, should have thrown out such miserable effusions as the following: 'It is only as affording an innocent employment of leisure, that the agreeable arts and sciences are useful. Under the pretext of purifying our taste, we have been robbed of a more or less considerable part of the objects which are calculated to amuse us. These critics are disturbers of pleasure; importunate intruders, who, sitting down to table, with their pretended delicacy, take away the appetite of the other guests. It is prejudice only (and a baneful prejudice) that speaks of *true* and *false* in matters of taste'.—In the same style, the author inveighs against *satire:*

> 'To these critics we may join the satirists, whose whole occupation is to foment calumny, and who are solely employed in casting contempt on all that interests man. In consequence of blackening and exaggerating every thing of which they treat, they vitiate the discernment and judgments of others. They confound all things, and diffuse their poison universally. Their employ is to obliterate all the lines of demarcation and distinction, which the philosopher and the legislator take such pains to trace; and for one correct trait in their works, we meet with a hundred odious hyperboles. They are indefatigable in exciting malevolence or antipathy.'

Again,

same style; ‘the Minister who amused himself
ames was better occupied than he would have
e Iliad in his hand, he had fostered in his heart
assion which feeds on blood and tears.'
e another instance which shews that the highest
ents and attainments is no guarantee against the
mistakes. Any comment on this shallow
e preposterous: but we cannot help observing
biassed must that mind be, which does not see
who in these times qualifies himself to derive
e Iliad, and who is capable of discerning and re-
ies, must necessarily be one of the last to cherish
ssion, the effects of which that poem so admirably
such a person, that passion appears only as the
ce. Such a reader will admire its faithful deli-
he contemplates the thing itself with disgust and
uppose that Mr. Bentham ranges Bunyan and
he side of Milton and Dryden, and that it is
nt to him which of these writers he takes up to
our. Considered as authors, why may we not
Montesquieu and Beccaria in the society of the
sts of the feudal or the Roman law? Mr. Ben
an author, as well as the great projector o
es of reform. What is it that gives him his rank
apacity? Have not the rare literary attainment
ments of M. Dumont been employed in impart
rm and symmetry to the chaos of Mr. B.'s papers ?
futes his doctrine; and he cannot persevere i
ut incurring, in addition to the charge of ign
gratitude

he adds his own discoveries to those of his predecessor. The great difference between them is this;—Dr. Smith sets out from facts, traces historically the causes and progress of riches, and occasionally throws out principles from which a system may be deduced, but which he does not himself form:—Mr. Bentham, presuming the historical relation to be already known, treats the subject in a manner purely didactic, lays down a grand principle, and draws every thing to it, making it appear that from it a complete system of political economy may be constructed. This great principle is, the limitation of industry and commerce by capital.

> 'Political economy,' says M. Dumont, 'is on the whole rather a science than an art. There is much in it to learn and little to perform.—What ought government to do in order to increase national wealth? Very little. Nothing, rather than too much.—What ought it to do in order to advance population? Nothing.—What will in most states be the best method of favouring the increase of riches and population? To abolish the laws and regulations by which it has been sought to increase them: provided that this abolition be gradual, and executed with care and judgment.—Behold art reduced to very little! *Security, Liberty,* these are all that industry requires. The request of agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, to the government, is as modest and reasonable as that of Diogenes to Alexander: "Take thyself away from my sun-shine." They require no favour; all that they want is a free and secure career.'

This chapter proceeds from the pen of the able and ingenious editor; and they must have more sagacity than we boast of possessing, who can perceive any difference between him and his author. This and other specimens in these volumes make us wish to see original productions from the same hand.

It appears to us impossible to abridge this part of the work, which is itself a most masterly abridgment. In the first chapter, the author shews that capital limits industry, and that the individuals who are interested are the best able to judge how capital should be employed. In the following chapters, he considers loans; premiums for production and exportation; the prohibition of rival manufactures; the various effects of taxes on industry, commerce, and population; colonies; the means of increasing riches; and the different obstacles which oppose the career of industry. This fourth book is so clear and concise, that it may equally serve as an introduction to the student and as a summary for adepts.

After all that we have said of this publication, we are conscious of not having succeeded in giving our readers an adequate idea of its importance. It is one of those performances, the fruit of genius and of long and patient labour, which on the score of merit and utility claim to rank among the productions that do honour to the country. If we have devoted to it a portion of space and attention which may appear to be unusual, let it be recollected that our ordinary occupation relates to temporary effusions, of which after a few months the recollection is preserved only in the numbers of our journal; while, in the present instance, we have been engaged on one of those original treatises, which will hold a permanent place in our libraries, and will sooner or later give rise to an era in our legal history.

Owing to the unfortunate state of the continent, and the exclusion of our commerce from Europe, we fear that the sale of theſe books will be confined to the market of Great Britain. We feel, however, no ordinary anxiety that the editor ſhould find encouragement to prosecute his labours on the farther manuscripts of Mr. Bentham: which, comprehending a complete penal code, we have been informed are in the hands of M. Dumont, and are intended to see the light if his past efforts meet with due encouragement. We hope that so great a treasure will not be lost to humanity.—Scarcely any other, than a man who could have produced the original work, could have rendered the services to these papers, which they owe to M. Dumont. His distinguished attainments are well known, and are every where discernible in these pages: but the pains and labour, which these services have cost him, while they escape superficial observers, intitle him to the highest acknowlegements and consideration from every lover of human improvement. What he was on former occasions, he is throughout the present volumes.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MARCH, 1812.

BULLION-QUESTION.

Art. 9. *Considerations on the present State of Bank-notes, Specie, and Bullion,* in a Series of Letters addressed to the Right Hon. —— In Two Parts. By Mercator. 8vo. pp. 32. 2s. Sherwood and Co.

These considerations were addressed, it appears, to one of the Ministers (Mr. Perceval, we presume,) at a time when the bullion-subject greatly engrossed the public mind. A hope that some of the suggestions might have been deemed worthy of adoption was the motive of this step: but, to the writer's great mortification, a bill was soon afterward passed, containing enactments of the most opposite tendency. Though no great admirers of the conduct of ministers in regard to the Bullion-question, we can scarcely blame them for turning a deaf ear to this author; whose remedies rise no higher than the old plan of prohibiting the export of bullion, the manufacture of plate, and the melting of gold by refiners. To these hackneyed expedients, he adds the recommendation of a bounty on the import of bullion, and the still more singular suggestion of a rise in the value of our coin every quarter, so as to keep it always above the value of bullion. *Mercator*, however, is by no means disposed to under-rate his plans in this manner. In spite of minister or critic, 'he feels an irresistible impulse to commit them to the press, and intends them for the perusal of *Peers and Members of Parliament*;' and lest an alarm should go abroad that his publication had resulted from improper views, he gravely assures his readers that he is 'connected with no party, and has no other motive than the public good.'

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 10. *On the Divisions among Christians.* A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Archdeaconry of Bedford, by the Rev. S. Vince, A. M., Archdeacon of Bedford, at his primary Visitation, held April 18, 1810. To which are added, Cautions against being misled by the Unitarian Interpretation of Scripture. 8vo. 2s. Lunn. 1811.

Unitarians charge the advocates of modern orthodoxy with maintaining doctrines which are corruptions of Christianity; while the Orthodox on the other hand represent the Unitarians as misleading, or, at least, as attempting to mislead, by their intepretation of the Scriptures. What are we to do in this case? Were we to venture roundly to decide between the disputants, we should not settle the matter, but only be regarded as attaching ourselves to the party in whose favour we thus declared. The best measure, therefore, which we can adopt, is to state, with as much impartiality as we can practise, the objections which may be offered to publications written on both sides of the question.

Mr. Archdeacon Vince, after some general skirmishing in his Charge, comes to close quarters with the Unitarians in the Appendix. By his highly metaphysical note, at the beginning, intended to reconcile the free-agency of man with the Divine foreknowlege, we were not greatly prepossessed in favour of his argumentative powers; since it appeared to us to be a very *unsatisfactory* (not to use a stronger epithet) mode of obviating the difficulty, to say 'that, if God should think proper to make man a free agent, he may suspend or limit the exercise of his faculty of præscience, supposing in this case such to be necessary.' Had Dr. Priestley been alive, he would have smiled at this curious mode of solution; and Mr. Belsham will probably not lose the opportunity of amusing himself with Mr. Vince's metaphysics, which stands as a sort of redoubt to his theology. The hints which Mr. V. gives at p. 34, on the method of interpreting Scripture, are extremely proper, and we entirely accord with him in the rules there laid down: but, as the controversy with Unitarians turns on certain niceties of phrase, we could have wished that he had confined himself more to scriptural expressions. The names of *Father*, *Son*, and *Holy Spirit* occur in the N. T.: but we never read there of

ivine Government.' (See p. 28.)
ivalent import, is no where to be
e with some reason objects to the
he passage in which Christ is said
" going to God," they explaining
ond literally :' but he has not been
lares ' that it is frequently asserted
e to make *satisfaction* for the sins of
he find the word *Satisfaction ?* It is
ery page, he observes ' that the death
, operated to procure our salvation.'
serted that Christ made *satisfaction* for
for this vague expression of *somehow*
. appear to have reflected on the subject
(p. 39, note,) not to perceive the dif-
ion : but can two ideas be more distinct
r between two parties, and that of being
stead of one of the parties, to satisfy or
other? In Deut. v. 5. is not Moses
ther note, at p. 48, contains a position
garded as *perfectly new ;* viz. that, ' when
is punished for the sake of deterring others
ictly a *vicarious* punishment.' We request
o his Dictionary for the meaning of the term
difference subsists between making an of-
executing an innocent person in order tha t
ll punishment ! —We transcribe also the con-
n an union of the divine and human natures ,
ithout the former.' Here it will be asked b y
y a mere human body suffered, how could Di -
d by such an offering ?"

from Mr. Vince's pamphlet, merely t o
the matters in dispute, an d
than be co -
h

they adapt specific passages in Daniel and St. John to the circumstances of the present times, are obliged to practise a little management, Bonaparte, 'in whom the whole of Satan inhabits bodily,' is here represented as 'a new power,' and yet '*not* a new power;' as the last head of the Roman Empire, assuming the title of Augustus, and the honour of the last of the Cæsars; and yet as without the name of Roman Emperor. The empire which he has erected is described as great; as formed on the ruin of the Monarchies of the continent; and yet, for our comfort, we are taught 'to consider it as *now expiring*, though not yet as *actually expired*.' Notwithstanding the victories of the French, this revealer of secrets assures us, (though we are sorry to say that no appearances arise to give us confidence in the fact,) 'that they are rapidly advancing to a state of final and complete exhaustion.' What, however, is to follow when the present tyranny of Europe shall pass away? Is any other tyranny to succeed it? No. On the fall of the French Empire, *the Kingdoms of this world are to become the Kingdoms of Christ*. Bonaparte, without knowing it, is appointed to introduce the *fifth Monarchy*, and probably very soon; for his power is said to be *now* expiring. Lest we should be suspected of giving a ludicrous representation of this writer's view of the future, we transcribe his own words:

'Hence it is manifest, that the *next great crisis*, or *primary period of time*, which, as Christians, we are *now* to look for, is one that will put an end to all further distinction of *secular* and religious interest; because it will be no other than *that last great concluding scene, and final transmutation of the present earth*, so long expected *by the Church*, which shall introduce *its promised triumph*, by revealing the glorified and everlasting *Kingdom of its Lord and Deliverer*.'

Shall we add;

"To laugh, were want of goodness and of grace,
And to be grave exceeds all power of face?"

Art. 12. *Report of the Formation of the Cambridge Auxiliary Bible-Society*: together with a List of Patrons and Subscribers; Dr. Marsh's Address to the Senate; Mr. Vansittart's Reply; &c. &c. Edited by Wm. Farish, B. D., Professor of Chemistry. 8vo. pp. 79. 2s. 6d. Hatchard.

Art. 13. *An Inquiry into the Consequences of neglecting to give the Prayer-Book with the Bible*. Interspersed with Remarks on some late Speeches at Cambridge, and other important Matter relative to the British and Foreign Bible-Society. By Herbert Marsh, D. D. F. R. S., Margaret Professor. 8vo. pp. 80. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

Art. 14. *A Letter to Herbert Marsh, D.D. F.R.S.*, &c. &c. &c. in Reply to certain Observations contained in his Pamphlet relative to the British and Foreign Bible-Society. By Edward Daniel Clarke, LL.D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

"Can such things be, and overcome us like a summer's cloud, without our special wonder!" How singular is the present controversy, and what a strange part does the Margaret-Professor act in it! Little did the Bible-Society expect to have their "good deeds

f" by a Protestant advocate for Revelation; and little
enter have supposed that the distribution of the Bible
be disapproved by a member of the Established Church.
tian sects profess to derive their tenets from the Holy
t must have been concluded that all would unite in pro-
stribution of those sacred records to which all make their
ided that these were left fairly to speak for themselves,
or comment. The Bible-Society, no doubt, congratu-
ves on the idea that their liberal system was unassailable by
d that, as no sectarian spirit blended itself with their grand
onduct, all parties would view it with complacency, even
ot afford it encouragement. They were deceived. Dr.
ds their plan as fraught with *danger* to the Established
is country; and though he does not go so far as to say
y Scriptures require the Book of Common Prayer to be
em by way of a *corrective*, yet he contends that the latter
as a *safeguard* against false interpretation.' He asserts
Protestant Churchmen and Protestant Dissenters combine
ibution of Bibles *at home*, and a society thus composed
turgy, because the Dissenters could not otherwise par-
uch a society is formed on *terms of inequality*, and the
nade on the part of the *Church*.' The language of
h manifests the dexterity, though not the liberality, of
Professor. Can the Church, by the mere distribution of
said to make a *sacrifice?* It may not have done all
wish to do, but it has given up nothing; it has made
se. The addition of the liturgy would certainly place
an and the Dissenter in this Society on unequal terms:
distribution of the Bible without any accompaniment
hey are placed on as *equal terms* as can possibly exist in
ty. Dr. M. perhaps will be ready to admit this posi-
en he would add that this new heterogeneous society
have been formed;—that " the Jews ought to have no

a libel on the Liturgy, while he professes to be its strenuous advocate. Dr. Clarke tells the Professor something to the same purpose; adding that nothing can be 'more in unison with the tenets of Dissenters. Professing a zeal for the *Liturgy*, you seem to disparage the BIBLE; urging arguments founded on its inability to support itself; maintaining that when *alone* it is weak, but when in *company* strong.' It is very clear that Dr. M. would chuse the distribution of the Liturgy without the Bible, in preference to that of the Bible without the Liturgy: but the doctrine of such a preference is of such a nature as he dares not avow. He may publish his aversion to act with Dissenters in schemes for the advancement of religion; and he may wish to serve the *old* Society for the advancement of Christian Knowlege before the *new* Bible Society: but we are of opinion that he risks his reputation with people of discernment, and that, though he may rise in the Church, he will sink in fame.

Some other pamphlets on this subject have appeared.

EDUCATION, &c.

Art. 15. *New Dialogues, in French and English:* containing Exemplifications of the Parts of Speech, and the auxiliary and active Verbs; with familiar Conversations on the following Subjects, History, Arithmetic, Botany, Astronomy, The Comet, The Opera, Singing, Hippodramatic Performances, Italian, Painting, Music, &c. &c. &c. By W. Keegan, Author of "*Le Négociant Universel,*" &c. 12mo. Common Paper, 3s. Fine, 4s. Boosey. 1811.

We agree with Mr. Keegan in wishing that more instructive subjects should be found for French and English dialogues than the directions to tradesmen, valets, and washerwomen, of which they usually consist; and as in the present work an attempt is made to convey some information, we recommend it to those who are in the habit of committing French conversations to memory.

Art. 16. *School of Instruction: a Present, or Reward,* to those Girls who have left their Sunday-School with Improvement and a good Character. By a Lady. 8vo. 2s. Ryan. 1812.

We have seldom seen instructions for the young, the poor, and the ignorant, which were more pleasingly simple or more laudably pious than these Exhortations. They are transcripts of weekly lectures delivered by the author to the children of a Sunday-school; and we think that they may be useful to many who are engaged in a similar good work.

Art. 17. *The Accomplished Youth:* containing a familiar View of the true Principles of Morality and Politeness. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Crosby and Co. 1811.

Too many Chesterfieldian documents are here interspersed with selections from the writings of Blair, Raleigh, and Mme. de Lambert: but this little book offers a great variety of useful counsel, and is farther recommended by its portable size and moderate price.

NOVELS.

Sea-Devil, or Son of a Bellows-mender. A Tragi-
ance of the present Day. By Edward Rose, Seaman*.
ols. Printed at Plymouth. 1811.

rst of these volumes is written by Mr. Rose, who died
rk was finished; and the remainder has Mr. Wild
The conclusion is more moral than the beginning; in
r, some humour will be found, though not of the most
nd too evidently imitated from Fielding and Sterne.
e being laid in France, where M. Le Noir, Mira-
introduced, it is rather an anachronism to call this a
present day.

dora of Milan. 12mo. 5 Vols. 1l. 5s. Boards.
Colburn. 1811.

this tale is new and interesting, and the incidents are
he author having it constantly in view to shew the
ng from impulse instead of principle, and to display
ich attend an indulgence of the passions, this moral is
in many passages; while the misfortunes which Isa-
en from *coquetting* with a man to whom she is not at-
so afford an useful lesson. As to the dialogue, howe-
eplete with quibbles and hyperbole, even during the
g situations of the interlocutors, that it seems

like to them, by pathos or by pun."

words of the author's own coining, such as *angelism,*
rnalty, &c., and his style occasionally degenerates
slop; *discern* is used for *disclaim;* and we hear of
tors instead of *composers,* and of a 'film being ga-
vision of sight.'

alie, or the Castle of Montalabretti. 12mo. 4 Vols.

coffee,' while she and her lover are in the most imminent danger; and Mrs. Radcliffe certainly never thought of accommodating her imprisoned recluses with 'a large dumb waiter, that moved on castors.' (See Vol. iv. p. 140.) Still, as this novel contains nothing which is inimical to the cause of morality, it may be read with impunity, though scarcely with pleasure.

Art. 21. *Elfrida*, Heiress of Belgrove. By Emma Parker. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. Boards. Crosby and Co. 1811.

Though the style of this work is very natural, and the story has many traits of originality, its interest is weakened by injudicious digressions. We cannot tolerate the author's frequent repetitions of fancies which she mistakes for wit: but we think that she possesses talents, which, if corrected by a maturer judgment, would afford unmixed pleasure to her readers.

Art. 22. *Virginia;* or the Peace of Amiens. By Miss Emma Parker, Author of "Elfrida." 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 4s. Boards. Crosby and Co. 1811.

The same defects, which were conspicuous in this prolific writer's "Elfrida," are manifested in the present work; while the story displays less ingenuity, since the dullest reader cannot fail to anticipate the sequel of Virginia's adventures when he has finished the first volume, and so many lovely and amiable females are introduced that the heroine is at first entirely eclipsed. The misunderstandings of Colonel Villeroy are too childish and improbable to excite sympathy: but the character of Clarence evinces the fair author's powers of observation, since we do not remember to have met with a similar personage in any other fictitious tale, though many such may be found in real life. Mrs. Pelham, too, is an English *Malade imaginaire*, whose fancied infirmities are depicted with much nature and some humour. The last of these volumes offers considerable variety; and on the whole we think that this work will be found amusing. We would advise Miss Parker to aim at conciseness in the construction of her sentences, and to avoid such instances of incorrect grammar as the following, 'he could have *ate;*'—'Virginia had *arose*,' &c. together with mistakes similar to that in Vol. ii. p. 186, in which she says, 'Charles reluctantly forbore to *extenuate* (instead of *exonerate*) himself,' &c.

Art. 23. *The Decision*: by the Author of "Caroline Ormsby," "The Acceptance," &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Colburn. 1811.

We trace in these volumes a laudable endeavour to convey as much moral instruction as could be admitted into a work of fancy; and, since many useful reflections on the common subjects of death and marriage are here introduced, it is an advantage to the reader that he will always be sufficiently calm to attend to them, at whatever period of the narrative they may chance to occur.

The style, however, of this harmless and well-intentioned novel, is disfigured by inaccuracies; and the want of very lively interest in the story may prevent it from being universally relished.

brook-Village and its inhabitants, or the History of
y and her Family; founded on facts. Written for
ent and Instruction of Young People. 12mo. 4s. 6d.
lburn. 1811.

tendencyof these memoirs is unexceptionable, and their
bably render them amusing: but we think that much
sh, which is put into the mouths of the poor villagers,
n omitted with advantage; and the language of Mrs.
f is not always faultless. In p.125, we find her saying
90. 'Total ignorance *have* many attendant evils;' and
rt regretted him with equal force it had ever done.'
pears to have been carelessly printed, and the speeches
ously divided.

Welch Mountaineer. By Arthur Mower. 12mo
ls. 7s. Boards. Crosby and Co. 1811.

f this tale is equally trite and true, since it shews th
happiness, and vice to misery: but the language o
illiers is extremely coarse, and the epistles of the mo
als possess little of either novelty or elegance. Th
of an obvious impropriety when he talks of *sailing*
m the Isle of Wight;—his female characters are u
nd we think that he is very unsuccessful in the deline
manners.

Milesian Chief, a Romance. By the Author of
' and "The Wild Irish Boy." 12mo. 4 Vols.
s. Colburn. 1812.

ly told by this author that he has never been praised
then informs the Philistines, who have undervalued
n which his strength consists. 'If I possess any talent,'
t is that of darkening the gloomy and deepening the
life in extremes, and representing those struggles of

highly poetical; several of the scenes would afford fine subjects for the painter; and the imagination which has dictated the whole, if directed by a purer taste, would be capable of pleasing in no ordinary degree.

POETRY.

Art. 27. *Poems*, by Lieutenant Charles Gray of the Royal Marines. Crown 8vo. 6s. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1811.

We must not be severe on the poems of a young officer which breathe a spirit of reflection and morality, and were written 'to beguile the time' when the worthy lieutenant bravely 'opposed the enemies of his country during the blockade of Venice,' as he himself informs us. —The Scotish dialect appears to be well imitated in many of his compositions: but it is difficult to repress a smile at the following encomium on '*sweet* Edinburgh,' p. 64.

> 'Though ane wad search the warld roun'
> He wad be sadly plaguet,
> To find in it anither town,
> Sae *neat*, sae trigly bigget!'

Art. 28. *The Sgelaighe*, or a Tale of Old, with a second edition of Poems published in Dublin, and additions. By Mrs. Lidiard. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Robinson. 1811.

Mrs. Lidiard is very fond of personification. Among other images, she describes 'Ierne's Genius' leaning on a silver spear, and modestly observes in a note that 'silver is always symbolical of purity,—therefore an appropriate device for Hibernia:'—(see p. 49.) but, although this ingenious compliment may win the smiles of her Irish readers, those who are unprejudiced will scarcely tolerate the feeble and bombastic strains which occupy this volume.

Art. 29. *The Widow and her Orphan Family*, an Elegy, by Miss Stockdale. 8vo. 1s., or a cheap edition 6d., or 5s. per Dozen. Stockdale. 1812.

Miss Stockdale has related a true and affecting scene with simplicity and feeling; we honour the benevolence which stimulates her exertions; and we sincerely wish that her readers may be induced to relieve the sufferings which she describes.

Art. 30. *Poems on various Subjects*. By James Stuart. A. B. Armagh. 12mo. pp. 191. Price 7s. 6d. Boards. Printed at Belfast. 1811.

Although Mr. Stuart's volume contains nothing that is strikingly new, his lays are pleasing and unaffected; his descriptive pieces will be found both elegant and natural; and many of the shorter poems may also be read with interest.

Art. 31. *The Poetical Chain*: consisting of Miscellaneous Poems, moral, sentimental, and descriptive; on familiar and interesting Subjects. By Mrs. Ritson. 12mo. pp. 227. 7s. 6d. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1811.

The first links of this 'poetical chain' are a deprecatory 'Addre

with ‘ The Author's apology for rhyming,’ and
ines intitled ‘ An excuse for the too *frequent* tender
c.’ We seldom augur favourably from such repeated
knowing that
science does make cowards of us all.”
’s compositions are not only unpoetical but ungram-
e trust that the modesty with which she speaks of
nt any great disappointment, should the public com-
ur opinion of their merits.

ms of Eugenio. Crown 8vo. Boards. Sherwood
and Co. 1811.

ses are said to have been written in the interior of
to find their imagery somewhat different from that
such compositions in this part of the world; since
preferred Tygers and Jungles to Lambs and Meadows,
a little variety. However, we meet with ‘ fertile
nsive strains’ in the first two lines; and all which
ve been conceived and composed in the very court of
ich they were printed. In the performance intitled
Hermit,’ we have indeed some unusual machinery;
of angels, who are sent down to dispel a hail-storm
r potent wands:’ but we must confess that this vo-
e attraction, either from its subjects or the poetry in
ntroduced.

s, the Indian Captive; a Poem in four Cantos; with
By the Rev. John Mitford, A. B. 12mo. 7s.

ninent Author has bestowed on his verses.' — His lines on religious ibjects are the worst in the collection; and we wish that the most iblime topics were attempted only by those who are endowed with iperior talents. We give credit to the pious intentions of this riter, though we blame him for addressing his God and his Muse in e same stanza; (p. 20.) and we question the orthodoxy and ropriety of that lay, (p. 40.) in which the Indian's adoration of akes and stones seems to be put on a parallel with Christian worship. Ir. S. appears to think that no language is too harsh for an Atheist use or to receive; and accordingly we find one of these characters in p. 56.) who thus begins an apostrophe to believers; 'And hy, ye sots!' &c. while Mr. Steers answers with a string of opprorious epithets, sufficient to silence the infidel for ever. — Among the iscellaneous poems, the same ideas are often repeated, and other riters are sometimes imitated: but the stanzas 'On the days that re past' are pleasing and natural.

Art. 35. *Ballad-Romances*, and other Poems. By Miss Anna Maria Porter. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

Miss Porter's Ballads display less invention than her other poems; nd in 'the Knight of Malta,' which is the best of them, she hazards he following description of a "green and yellow melancholy:"

> 'His cheek was once like the orange red,
> But now like the olive pale.
> And his heart that erst with pity bled,
> Now heaves through pitiless mail.' —

et this volume contains much that is elegant and pleasing; the genious allegory of 'Youth' has many beautiful lines; the 'Address a Regiment going on Foreign Service' is both spirited and pahetic; while the 'Lines written after reading the "Corinne" of adame de Stael, and the "Psyche" of the late Mrs. Henry ighe,' are fraught with so much taste, feeling, and generous enthuasm, that we should be glad to extract them at length. We shall, owever, present our readers with a part of the apostrophe to the thoress of Psyche:

> 'Ah, sounds divine! whence flow ye? from yon copse,
> Steal on the depth of night melodious sighs
> From Love's own bosom heaved: the warbled lay,
> First softly wooing, then lamenting sad,
> Now trembling with delight, with hope, half bliss,
> With dear persuasion of partaken joy,
> Soars and descends by turns: all nature melts
> To softer charm, beneath its influence pure;
> With tenderer light looks down the pensive moon;
> More balmy breathe the flowers; and stiller stand
> The listening trees; the human breast o'erflows
> With holy rapture; virtue, love, and joy
> All swell together, till in tears dissolved,
> The sweet emotions find their happy way. —
> Nightingale of Romance, thou art gone.

mid thy tuneful life, to sing above!
uilty echoes dared not answer thee;
o oft devote to Passion's voice,
ndeed, but lawless, and profane. —)'

ms in the English and Scottish Dialects. By William own 8vo. pp. 126. Printed at Aberdeen. 1812.
npts of a rustic bard are uniformly moral: but, in f a circumscribed education, the author mistakes the common-place-sentiments for new ideas; presenting to lamentations and reflections of *Hermits*, *Wanderers*, and in the simplicity of an uncultivated taste, he strings of cogitations 'on his own early baldness,' which ludicrous. His poems in the Scotish dialect, however, nt spirit and pleasantry to remind us sometimes of his d countryman, Burns.

rospection, a Poem in Familiar Verse, by Richard 4to. 10s. 6d. Boards. Nicol and Son. 1811.
t the men who can read the poem of 'Retrospection' feelings than those of sympathy and sorrow. We ning on the present occasion, creditable as many of his e, but the author of the West Indian, of the Transla- ne Greek Fragments, and of the whole of the Observer. — and whom has he left behind him of equal interest in appreciation, as a general friend to literature, and as a er in many kinds of composition? For our own part, the following passage has an irresistible charm: — Yes, the valued contemporary and associate of Johnson, of Goldsmith, Garrick, Soame Jenyns, &c. &c. who a man as Cumberland uttering the following lines ion and respect?

e departed worthies! I have mourn'd

CLASSICS.

Art. 38. *P. Virgilii Maronis Bucolica.* Crown 8vo. 13s. Boards, plain, or 18s. coloured. Mackinlay. 1810.

This well-printed volume contains the text of Virgil's Eclogues; with notes, explanatory, and occasionally critical. It offers also a literal prose-translation of the text, and concludes with twenty-four engravings of plants mentioned in the Eclogues. These are prettily executed; and indeed we can recommend the whole volume to the juvenile scholar; or to that numerous class of readers who, in their advanced age, are desirous of retrieving the "little Latin and less Greek" of their youth. To the lovers of those simple pleasures, also, which the union of classical pursuits with gardening and botany never fails to impart, the book will be an acceptable present; and as a more portable companion for their country walk than Martin's Bucolics, it may perhaps obtain at times the distinguished favour of superseding that interesting edition. The real scholar, however, will certainly not derive much benefit either from this version or its illustrations:—nay, he will, in spite of himself, be provoked to an undignified smile when he reads such "*a-doing-into-English*" of "*Prima Syracosio*," &c. as the following:

'Our muse Thalia first stooped to the Sicilian strain, nor blushed to inhabit the woods. When I sung of Kings and wars, Apollo plucked my ear, and admonished me. Tityrus, it behoves a shepherd to *feed his fat sheep*, and sing an humbler lay.' page 81.

Art. 39. *Cicero de Senectute et de Amicitiâ*, from the Text of Ernesti, with all his Notes and Citations from his Index Latinitatis Ciceronianæ; with the Explanations of various Passages from Gesner's Latin Thesaurus, and from Books of more recent Date, as well as from Grævius and all the Commentators cited by him; with Quotations from Palairet's Latin Ellipses; and much original Matter both critical and explanatory; Facciolati's Notes, and a New Collation *is* (are) added: And an Appendix, in which will be found Remarks on the Origin of the Latin Conjunctions and Prepositions; also some curious Matter on the affinity of different Languages, Oriental and Northern, to the Latin; including two on the Origin and the Extinction of the Latin Tongue, communicated to the Author by the Rev. R. Patrick, Vicar of Sculcoates, Hull. By E.H. Barker, of Trinity College, Cambridge. 12mo. Longman and Co. 1811.

Such a *Table of Contents in a title-page* will amply inform our readers as to the nature of the multifarious duodecimo here offered to the youthful scholar. It certainly may be used with advantage by boys in the middle classes of our public schools: but, we confess, we think that the former part of it, consisting of extracts from the commentaries of approved critics, and from dictionaries of established reputation, is far more valuable than the subjoined appendix by the Vicar of Sculcoates. Not that this gentleman, in his Two Essays on the Origin and Extinction of the Latin Language, has omitted to ransack the writings of previous philologers, or has presented us with scanty information on his peculiar and interesting subjects: but he has digested his

a careless and imperfect manner. He commences his first
very loose a style, that he would excite a suspicion, in
who was deterred by such an opening from perusing the
, of his want of sufficient acquaintance with the matters
discussing. As he proceeds, the candid reader will be
attribute to carelessness, rather than to ignorance, such
s the following: 'From *Plautus*, *Phædrus*, and *Terence*
age of Tacitus and of Lactantius in the year 306,' &c. &c.
this is one of the most extraordinary chronological
s (or synchronisms) that we ever witnessed; and we are
leased with such a mode of quoting Horace as this: 'But,
observes, *Verborum non, æternus honos et gratia vivax,*
ta peribunt.' We know not what copy of the "*Ars*
e vicar of Sculcoates uses: but if he trusted to memory,
uld have prompted

——— "*Mortalia facta peribunt,*
Nedum sermonum stet honos, et gratia vivax."

er's original matter in this school-book reflects consider-
on him as an industrious and observant scholar. We
out sundry exceptions to this remark: but we shall be
h generally admonishing Mr. B. to cut out all irrelevant
his little volume, should it arrive, as we hope it will, at
ition; and especially to be careful in correcting errors of
hich in the first treatise (*De Senectute*) we have observed
evalent.—We again recommend the work to the attention
utors of youth.

of conduct. We are reminded by him that in politics especially this paradox may be regarded as established truth, that "what is speculatively true may be practically false;" and if he does not adopt the cant-abuse against philosophy, he seems to intimate that philosophy or pure reasoning tends rather to mislead than to benefit us in practical politics, which can never be brought to square with the notions of moral and dispassionate men.

Mr. M.'s doctrine is that matters, on the whole, are such as they ought to be; that the present mode of sending members to the Lower House returns to it that proportion of 'wealth, rank, office, and talent' which ought to prevail in that assembly; that what is termed corruption is a management absolutely necessary to give the Monarchy its preponderance in the representative body; that there is a kind of charm or talismanic operation by which the Monarchy, Aristocracy, and Democracy are made to move in harmonious combination; and that we ought to be very cautious of disturbing a machine which has been found by practice to go extremely well, notwithstanding the heterogeneous elements of which it is composed. It is asserted that 'an independent House of Commons, *in its present plenitude of power*, is not compatible with the integrity of the British Constitution;' and it is contended that 'the House of Commons, by assuming the power of the purse, has, in fact, nearly swallowed up the other branches of the Constitution, and obliged the Monarchy and the Aristocracy to join this "*tiers état*:" so that the House of Commons is the *arena* on which the contests and struggles of the three estates are in future to be exhibited.' Hence a new language becomes necessary, and we are told that 'the King, Lords, and Commons now unite in choosing the *representatives of the people*.' (Is not this assertion made in the Tipperary style?) 'They join in the deliberations of the House of Commons when assembled in Parliament; and the votes of that House, which commonly fix the destinies of the nation, express the consent of King, Lords, and Commons.' According to Mr. M., the whole of the Legislature is concentrated in the Lower House; and he thinks 'that, at no period since the conquest, have the Monarchy, Aristocracy, and Democracy, of which the British consititution is compounded, so well preserved their due equipoise as during the present reign.'

Yet, strange to say, while Mr. M. is an ardent advocate for our political system, as *at present in practice*, — while he thinks that the influence and management displayed in the House of Commons are essential to the balance of power, and necessary for the preservation of the Monarchy, — he concedes to Mr. Roscoe that *some sort of reform is necessary*; and he allows that, on certain occasions, (he instances the vote on the Walcheren expedition,) a degree of court-influence seems to manifest itself in the Commons' House, 'which, *if it should continue to increase*, would threaten, at no distant period, to annihilate the chief uses of the Lower House as a deliberative body.' With this concession, we should suppose that Mr. Roscoe will be satisfied; and he stands in no need of any hints from us respecting the use that he may make of it. After all Mr. M.'s admissions, it may fairly be questioned whether the uses of the Lower House, as a

deliberative body, have not been *already* greatly impaired, w
not say annihilated; because the argument does not require us t
pose an extreme case. This gentleman may state the matt
sober seriousness: but can he seriously talk of *the representati*
the people being *chosen by the King and the Nobles?* The Mon
and the Aristocracy constitute two distinct estates of the legisl
and if they also preponderate by their influence in the third estate,
is the supposed balance which is effected by the representati
the people? Mr. M.'s views may be fashionable, but they a
to us to contain a sort of libel on the constitution. If it be a
well known to practical men, that the House of Commons mu
managed, (vulgarly termed *corrupted*,) before Government can
ceed with strength and security; and if all public measures a
cided, previously to their being brought before it, of what adva
is it as a *deliberative* assembly; and would it not be wise, as a
ber is said once to have proposed, *to vote first and debate afterw*
All subordinate inquiries respecting the modes of election are l
the grand question, how far ought the House of Commons to
a counter-balance against the other two estates? If its indepen
can only be nominal, and *ought* only to be nominal, we destroy
idea of its being a popular representation; it then becomes m
an engine of the Crown, and the people pay dearly for a pha
Might we not go farther, and say that, in this case, the House
resemble Macbeth's witches, "speaking the word of promise
ear and breaking it to our hopes?" Such an account of our
tical constitution is very objectionable in a *moral* point of view,
it tends to destroy every principle of honour and integrity i
public men. It tells the members of the House of Commons,
they must never consult their own consciences, nor the good o
people. On the supposition, — for we must here argue only h
thetically, — that the Monarchy and the Aristocracy have a de
ascendency in the Lower House, can it be said that the repre
tives of the people hold the public purse? Will a retrospect
history, from the commencement of the American war, justif
notion that, as guardians of this public purse, it has honourabl
charged its functions? Mr. M. acknowleges 'that, for some
past, *the number of placemen in the Lower House is become evi*
too great;' and he thinks that 'a motion to that effect would
acquire a powerful support.' What? would the ministry,
having obtained a convenient influence by the aid of placemen
found this influence essential to the system, vote for a thinning
ranks of this obsequious legion; or would the placemen them
consent to their own exclusion? *A long time* must elapse befo
politicians will act so impoliticly!

Conspicuous as is the ingenuity with which Mr. M. has
his side of the question, he has not in our judgment disprove
necessity of *some* reform in the mode of returning members; n
we admit that 'such a reform would produce no improvement
representative body itself.' If the House was differently consti
the quantum of influence exerted in it would necessarily be diff
We shall not, however, pursue the subject in this place. It is
ing to perceive that both the parties are now disposed to discu

points at issue dispassionately: though with the advocates for parliamentary reform they are become matters rather of argument than of hope. The danger of innovation operates powerfully and extensively. 'Distorted and mis-shapen' as the body-politic is admitted to be, yet, 'while it can perform its ordinary functions' cautious men do not relish the idea of any 'fractures and dislocations.' They hope that it will last their time, and as for posterity it must take care of itself. If such, however, be the sum and substance of modern patriotism, posterity will never erect altars to its memory.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 41. *Rules for the Government of the Gaol and House of Correction at Dorchester.* 1810. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Nichols.

These rules, which are 93 in number, appear to be drawn up with every attention to cleanliness, health, decorum, sobriety, industry, regularity, reformation, and, as far as the security of prisoners will admit, to humanity. The arrangements of this gaol are in unison with the liberal spirit of the age; and if the benevolent Howard was alive to peruse this volume, he would derive satisfaction from considering them, especially as he would recognize in them the good effects of his commendable inquiries into the state of our prisons.

Art. 42. *Hints to the Public and the Legislature, on the Prevalence of Vice, and on the dangerous Effects of Seduction.* 12mo. 2s. Wilson. 1811.

Nothing can be a more complete object of disgust and of pity than the common prostitute, and no character is more base than that of the systematic seducer: but, of the numbers who fill the ranks of prostitution, perhaps a small proportion can attribute their fall *merely* to the arts of man. A want of chastity is very common; and the general prevalence of this crime is more owing to the improper education given to females than to the wiles of the other sex. Throughout the kingdom, young women are educated above their station, and the pride of which this is the consequence leads for the most part to fatal effects. Too fine to be plain housewifes, and aspiring to be ladies without justifiable pretensions, they are easily persuaded to become mistresses, and, when abandoned by their gallants, they throw themselves on the town. How is this evil to be remedied? Not by altering the law respecting seduction and adultery, but by altering our system of female education and our general manners. The cases of adultery which come before the public are few in comparison with those which pass without observation. By imbuing the minds of the fair sex with the principles of virtue in early life, by educating them in the bosom of their respective families, by avoiding that *public* education which tends to make them masculine and assured, and by returning to a more modest and humble style of dress, our youthful females would be impressed with a sense of duty instead of pleasure: but, as women are at present educated, and as even the lower classes are suffered to dress, every idea of duty is lost in the gay dream of dissipation. Vicious men ought to be restrained and punished: but, if women are self-seduced to their hands, the blame is half taken from the corrupter of female innocence. Let us meet the evil fairly, put it in its true light, and then we shall know how to apply the proper remedy:—altogether to prevent it is impossible.—Some years ago, prostitution was not so common as it is now, though the laws were the same; and we are not disposed to call in severe enactments to promote the cause of morals, if the object can be attained by other means. Let us look to the source of the evil, and purify the stream as it flows from the fountain.

Art. 43. *Instinct displayed*, in a Collection of Well-authenticated Facts, exemplifying the extraordinary Sagacity of various Species of the Animal Creation. By Priscilla Wakefield. 12mo. pp. 311. 5s. 6d. Boards. Darton and Harvey. 1811.

By collecting instances of animal sagacity, Mrs. Wakefield not only affords her young readers a rational amusement, but a powerful incentive to humanity. We applaud her attention in selecting, for this pleasing little volume, only such facts as have been attested by persons deserving of credit, and her candour in detailing them precisely in the same form in which they were communicated to her: but we confess our incredulity respecting the musical taste of a dog, who (see page 192.) is said to have *beaten time* with his tail to the Piano-forte.

Art. 44. *Trifles in Verse and Prose.* By E.H. Rose, late a seaman of H. M. Ship L'Impetueux. 12mo. pp. 112. Printed at Plymouth. 1811.

BACON said that, "if a man read little, he had need have much cunning to seem to know that he doth not:" but of this cunning Mr. Rose was not possessed; nor are his errors of style and his deficiency of information compensated by such traits of original genius or natural taste, as in some instances have triumphed over ignorance and habit. He calls himself 'a child of war,' 'a poet,' and 'a bard!' We know not whether the former of these appellations belongs to a purser's steward, which he appears to have been: but we must not honour with the title of a Poet,

> " *Col nome che più dura e più onora,*"

the author of these doggerel verses, odes to a Cyprian and to a Goose, valentines, and songs; in which, among other faults, *saw* is made to rhyme with *Gallia*, *down* with *sound*, *wot* with *sport*, &c. &c.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 45. Preached in His Majesty's Chapel at Whitehall, January 21. 1810. at the Consecration of the Right Rev. the Lord Bishop of Chester. By Francis Haggitt, D.D. Prebendary of Durham, &c. 4to. 2s. Faulder.

In this discourse, which is printed *by command* of the Archbishop of York, the learned preacher first considers the perils which Christianity has encountered at different periods, and then proceeds to take a view of the dangers which at present threaten the Church of England, (which Dr. H. pronounces to be 'the fairest fruit of

Christıity,') and to rouse the clergy and members of the Establish- orously to repel its enemies, that the gates of hell may no :vail against it than against Christianity itself. Dr. Haggitt e history of Christianity into four distinct ages:—*the age of ion*, including the first three centuries; —*the age of Ignorance*, ending what are commonly called the dark or middle ages; *of Scepticism and Infidelity*, which succeeded the Reforma- the discovery of printing; —and *the age of Indifference*, the ich he gives to the existing period. The dangers of the of England are stated to arise from three distinct sources; malignity of enemies,—the coldness of conformists,—and the ns in the church itself. Under the first head, he arranges Disaffected Persons, and Sectaries; the last of which are ted as incapable of tolerating the Church of England, the Church of England tolerates them.' Without attempt- timate the quantity of loving kindness which subsists be- e Establishment and the mass of Dissent, we will venture to no Sectary will allow himself to lie under any obligations hurch of England, but solely to the government, for the f toleration which he enjoys. Dr. H. speaks of 'the scorn rating spirit;' and when he describes Dissenters as 'a swarm ies,' he completely exemplifies his own meaning. sermon is well written, in a lofty tone.

Scriptural Christianity recommended: —preached at the Chapel in Broad-street, Lynn, May 19, 1811, in consequence Author's separation from the Society meeting there for Worship: to which is prefixed an Introductory Narrative, those Views of Satanic Influence, the Athanasian Creed, and lvinistic System, which occasioned his Separation, and induced become the Minister of a New Congregation. By Thomas , Author of Essays on Man, &c. 8vo. pp. 72. 2s. Sher- and Co.

Finch is a gentleman who, after having been educated in ic principles and commenced his ministry as a Calvinistic , *uncalvinized* his mind by that process of reading and ra- quiry which the wise endeavour to promote, but which would always suppress. With an expansion of sentiment, oupled the most perfect ingenuousness; he apprized his con- n of the change which his opinions had undergone; and as ge was displeasing to several of the society to which he l, he, at their instigation, resigned his charge and became the of another congregation; formed, it may be supposed, of from the old, and perhaps of some new members. We are e Narrative that the author was dismissed from the chapel in reet, by 'little more than a twentieth part of the congrega- d if this be the case, the majority of the old society must owed him to his new situation. Mr. F.'s narrative and fare- ourse are declarative of a manly and liberal spirit. His imbued with the genuine principles of religious liberty; his ears animated with a zeal for gospel-truth; and he seems an who would wish to speak the truth in love.

Art. 47. *Christian Charity delineated and recommended:*—preached at the Request of the Female Society of Glasgow, March 21, 1811. By John Mitchell, A. M., Minister of the Gospel, Anderston. 8vo. 1s. Ogle. 1811.

Never have we seen the duty of Christian charity more clearly explained and more forcibly urged than in the discourse before us; and those persons who requested the preacher to print it evinced both their judgment and their public spirit. Mr. Mitchell correctly observes that the Apostle, in the words of the text (James i. 27.), is not speaking of the whole of religion, but means to assert this important truth, 'that practical Christianity is eminently a ministry of holy compassion and generosity.' Into the ramification of this discourse, we cannot enter, nor can we point out the many excellent remarks which it contains: but we recommend it to general perusal, trusting that its practical hints and forcible addresses will be of service throughout Great Britain. It produced (we learn) a large collection at the time of its delivery for the Glasgow Female Society; and the author has devoted any profits which may arise from the sale of it to this charity. If we may be allowed to make an extract from this single sermon, we shall take that passage which occurs at p. 16.

'There is a noble kind of beneficence, which deserves our notice on this part of our subject. It is that which consists in encouraging the industrious poor, by the loan of small sums, or by affording them labour at an advantageous rate; and in bringing forward young persons of promising talents, or of virtuous habits, by supplying them with the means of education, of establishment in business, or of advancement in the world.'

Such acts of charity or kindness promise a rich harvest: but the vague and casual almsgiving, commonly called charity, is too often productive of injury rather than benefit.

Art. 48. *The Duty of Christians to partake of the Afflictions of the Gospel*, considered and inforced; delivered at Portsmouth, on June 26, 1811, before a Society of Unitarian Christians, established in the South of England for promoting the genuine Knowlege of the Scriptures, and the Practice of Virtue, by the Distribution of Books. By Thomas Rees. 12mo. 1s. Johnson and Co.

Among the evils with which the Gospel is afflicted, Mr. Rees particularly enumerates Persecution, the corruption of its doctrines and the indifference of its professors; to each of which he proposes to apply an adequate remedy. He classes the Trinity, Original Sin, Atonement, Election, and Reprobation, in the list of errors; and he does not scruple to reprobate them in terms which some persons, as Mr. Rees himself tells us, have called harsh and severe. For this harshness and severity, however, he offers no apology; being convinced that it is his duty to deliver the convictions of his mind with energy, and assured that it is practicable to express the deepest abhorrence of doctrines which are supposed to be of a very pernicious tendency, without being deficient in charity to those who hold them.

Mr. Rees shews none of the indifference which he laments in others; but, with all the zeal of a conscientious Unitarian, he endeavours to point out the bad tendency as well as the errors of the creed which he opposes: yet he with pleasure admits the fact that persons of exemplary piety and goodness are to be found among Calvinists.

Art. 49. *The Connection between the Simplicity of the Gospel and the leading Principles of the Protestant Cause:* — preached July 10, 1811, at George's Meeting-House, in Exeter, before the Society of Unitarian Christians established in the West of England, for promoting Christian Knowlege and the Practice of Virtue by the Distribution of Books. By John Kentish. 12mo. 1s. Johnson and Co.

Of all our modern sects, the Unitarians are perhaps the most undaunted in the prosecution of their inquiries, and in the undisguised avowal of their opinions. Without fear of consequences, they are warmly solicitous of bringing every doctrine to the test of reason and scripture; resolved, at all events, to discard every thing which will not bear the touch of Ithuriel's spear. Mr. Kentish, as an Unitarian, therefore, strongly reprobates the practice of obstructing the path of inquiry by prejudice and human authority, and enters his protest against all restraints on investigation. Taking this ground, he cannot be assailed by the consistent Protestant: for on all points of doctrine the Protestant's sole question is, "What say the Scriptures? By them and by them alone shall my mind be influenced." Speaking as an Unitarian, also, Mr. K. disclaims all mystery. 'Upon our doctrines,' says he, 'no such character is inscribed; in these there is nothing which shrinks from discussion, which dreads the light, which condemns reflection.'

The Unitarian Society, before which this discourse was preached, seems to have been on the increase since we last saw a list of subscribers, which is here subjoined. At the same time, we must remark that the whole list contains little more than 200 names.

Art. 50. *The Apostolic Message to the Nations considered in connection with the Duty of Christian Baptism,* delivered in the public Town-Hall at Lane End, Staffordshire, July 1810. Published at the Request of the Hearers; with a Preface, explanatory of the Occasion of the Sermon, and an Appendix, exculpatory of the Author's Principles and Conduct from the Misrepresentations of Mr. Thomas Brocas of Shrewsbury. 12mo. 1s. Button.

The preface to this discourse is signed Thomas Shaw, who must consequently be considered as the author of the sermon, though his name does not appear in the title. This preacher, who is a strenuous anti-pædobaptist, urges some strong arguments on his side of the question, and considers himself as having fully proved that Christ's ordinance of baptism never was intended by him to be administered to infants, but that it was the uniform practice of the primitive church for two hundred years to administer it to adults alone, and by no other mode than that of immersion. He defies his opponents to prove that the word *βαπτιζω* signifies any thing short of plunging the whole body under water. — We shall not enter into this controversy, but shall refer the reader to Suicer's ample view of the subject in his *Thesaurus*, under the word *βαπτιζω*: only observing that, as baptism is

merely

lical rite expressive of the purifying effects of the
, the quantity of water employed does not seem to be
nd that, as no particular rules and instructions are
Gospel respecting its administration, Christians are
nd should not abuse each other for different modes of
hey mean to consider the baptismal fluid as possessing
hose of the river Styx; and that, if even a *heel* be
istianizing invulnerability is incomplete?
the adjuncts to this sermon that a warm controvers[illegible]
on in the author's neighbourhood, on the subjects [illegible]f
Atonement; and also that the combatants are mo[illegible]e
than to enlighten each other. We are sorry to n[illegible]
of this kind. A neighbourhood split into religio[illegible]us
ery uncomfortable. Mr. Shaw and Mr. Brocas se[illegible]m
her as well as the devil loves holy water.

iscourse occasioned by the Death of Elizabeth Prow[illegible]*se,*
en Park, Northamptonshire; delivered in Substa[illegible]ce
urch, March 4, 1810. By the Rev. John Ow[illegible]en,
or of Paglesham, Essex, and Curate and Lecture[illegible] of
. 1s. Hatchard.
e discourses are peculiarly adapted to the pulpit; [illegible] *for,*
s of a writer on oratory, "to what purpose can [illegible]*lo-*
employed than in celebrating virtuous persons [illegible] *and*
a manner as to excite mankind to their imitation [illegible]
s of the blessed fruits of religion ought not to b[illegible] *ne-*
hristian minister; and Mr. Owen must he appla[illegible]*ded*

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For APRIL, 1812.

Art. I. *Journal of a Tour in Iceland*, in the Summer of 1809. By William Jackson Hooker, F.L.S., and Fellow of the Wernerian Society of Edinburgh. 8vo. pp. 560. 16s. Boards. Vernor and Co. 1811.

The dreary coast of Iceland does not invite very numerous visitants, even in this *tourifying* age: yet that northern region is by no means destitute of objects which may gratify scientific and literary curiosity; and it has accordingly, at various times, been explored by the curious traveller. At the present moment, our attention to it is called forth by more than one detail of excursions to its shores: but the volume now before us is the first in order, and has for some time been lying on our table. We were, however, fearful of bringing the subject under the eye of our readers during the *winter-months*, lest the bare mention of *Iceland* should add disagreeably to their chilly feelings, and perhaps even induce them angrily to throw our Review into the fire, in order to increase its welcome glow, instead of incurring fresh shivers by a perusal of hyperborean descriptions. Now, however, when we are once again preparing to sing,

> " *Diffugêre nives, redeunt jam gramina campis,*
> *Arboribusque comæ,*"

we may perhaps venture to talk of a summer's voyage to a northern latitude.

Mr. Hooker's occasional communications to the Linnéan Society have already attracted our favourable notice; and his present publication appears before us under circumstances which powerfully plead for the utmost indulgence of criticism. When this gentleman found that he could not put in execution a voyage which he had projected to a tropical climate, Sir Joseph Banks apprized him of an opportunity of a passage to Iceland, in a merchant-ship which was expected to sail in three days. On the second of June 1809, he accordingly embarked on board the Margaret and Anne, Captain Liston, lying at Gravesend, and bound for Reikevig. Mr. Phelps and Mr. Jorgensen, who superintended this mercantile adventure in

ere kindly solicitous to afford the naturalist every
ccommodation, and contributed, by their agreeable
beguile the irksomeness of a sea-voyage. A lamen-
ent, which will be related in its proper place, snatched
Hooker nearly all the hard-earned fruits of his pain-
on; nothing of his manuscripts and collections being
except a portion of his journal, containing little more
ccurrences of the first four weeks of his residence on
and the wedding-dress of an Icelandic lady. From
y relicts, with his own recollections, and the assist-
hers, he was enabled to commit to writing a nar-
his proceedings, designed for the perusal only of his
nds: —but, on the flattering representation of Sir J.
l with the view of counteracting any unfavourable
which might be conveyed through the medium of
is and mutilated extracts, the author has agreed to
ntire to the judgment of the public.

Joseph Banks,' he observes, 'besides being honoured with
and assistance preparatory to the undertaking of the
n indebted also for the truly hospitable entertainment I
from the inhabitants of Iceland, who felt, I am sure, a
and satisfaction in having it in their power to offer their
to pay every possible attention to a stranger visiting their

Much valuable and interesting information is contained in the introductory notices of the history and statistics of the island: but we can glance only at a few of the particulars. It appears that, towards the end of the ninth century, the whole country was overrun with forests, though now it may be said to be destitute of trees. All attempts in recent times to rear even the more hardy sorts have proved ineffectual; and, for their necessary supply of wood, the inhabitants are obliged to depend entirely on importations from Norway, and on the drift-timber which is supposed to be conveyed by the winds and currents from North America. — Of the higher mountains of the island which have been measured with any degree of accuracy, the elevation is nearly 7000 feet, though they are by no means the most lofty. Hecla is more celebrated for its eruptions than its height, which is only about 5000 feet.

The population of Iceland, which has, on various occasions, been subjected to very afflicting reductions, at present amounts only to 48,000 inhabitants; who, from the rigours and instability of the climate, can never rely on their native produce even for the necessary articles of subsistence. The arrival of enormous masses of floating ice not only induces a degree of cold which destroys vegetation and cattle, but affords an opportunity to the white bears of Greenland to visit the island; 'which they occasionally do in alarming numbers, and render it necessary for the natives to assemble in parties for the purpose of destroying them, lest so unwelcome a visitor should fix himself permanently among them.'

In Iceland, the same individual, as happens in very thinly peopled and rude countries, is necessarily occupied with various sorts of employment; as tending cattle, fishing, assorting wool, preparing skins, drying and securing hay, repairing dwellings, &c.; separate and distinct professions being scarcely known. The principal articles of export are, dried fish, especially cod, (of a superior quality,) mutton, lamb, beef, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarse woollen cloth, the skins of sheep, lambs, and foxes, eider-down, and feathers; and their chief importations are timber, fishing-tackle, various implements of iron, tobacco, bread, spirituous liquors, salt, linen, &c. A large proportion of their food consists of fish, butter, and various preparations of milk. The fish are mostly eaten in a dry and uncooked state; and the butter is 'made without salt, with all the whey and superfluous moisture pressed out, in which state it will keep for fifteen or twenty years, acquiring in the interim a degree of rancidity which is not unpleasant to an Icelandic palate.' — 'The flesh of either sheep or bullocks and rye-bread is [are] only brought to the table of the superior class of people. Birds

ıs kinds, especially water-fowl and the larger inhabit-
he deep, are of course only occasionally procured, and
pe taken into account while speaking of the general
subsistence of the Icelanders, any more than the native
productions which are occasionally prepared for food;
the *Angelica Archangelica*, *Cochleariæ*, *Rennices*, and
opetala, with *Lichens* and *Fuci* of two or three kinds.
en Islandicus alone is sometimes eaten in considerable
; but more is gathered for exportation.'

t of hospitals, and of other proper medical aids, is
a very serious evil in a country of which the inhabit-
incident to inveterate scurvy, leprosy, elephantiasis,
ny's fire, jaundice, pleurisy, and depression of spirits;
e sick and lame are seen crawling about in the most
nanner. Independently of the cutaneous distempers
they are peculiarly liable, the nutriment of the poor
manner of living are adverse to health and longevity;
y of the children die, during infancy, because the
ther do not suckle them at all, or, at most, only for a
; after which they feed them with cows' milk, through
ith a piece of rag fastened to the end.

musements, which are chiefly confined to reading or
their antient sagas, are little calculated to dispel their

of it.—On the 21st, in consequence of a signal, a boat came off to them with pilots and other attendants, whose squalid and grotesque exterior, as exhibited by the author, produces at once *attraction* and *repulsion*. The landing of the voyagers at Reikevig was welcomed by the shouts of a hundred natives, principally women, who were employed in the operation of drying fish:

'Most of this business was performed by women, some of whom were very stout and lusty, but excessively filthy, and, as we passed the crowd, a strong and very rancid smell assailed our noses. The first peculiarity about the women, which strikes the attention of a stranger, is the remarkable tightness of their dress about the breast, where the jacket is, from their early infancy, always kept so closely laced, as to be quite flat, which, while it must be a great inconvenience to them, entirely ruins their figure in the eyes of those who come from a more civilized part of the world. Their dress is not otherwise unbecoming, and, from its warmth, must be well suited to the coldness of this climate. Upon their heads, in their working, or common dress, they wear a blue woollen cap, with a long point, which hangs down by the side of the head, and is terminated by a tassel, nearly resembling such as is worn by many of our horse soldiers, in their undress uniform, and this tassel is often ornamented with silver wire. When they have this head-dress, their long and dirty hair is suffered to hang over the shoulders to a great length; but not so, when the *faldur*, or dress-cap is worn: then the hair is carefully tucked up, so that none of it is seen. As, however, I shall confine myself at present to the dress of those females whom I saw at work when I landed, I shall reserve my description of the turban, and of the dress of the richer people, till another opportunity. Over a great number, I cannot tell how many, of coarse woollen petticoats, and a shirt of the same materials, they wear a thick petticoat, or rather gown without sleeves, (for there are two apertures for the arms,) made of blue or black cloth, and fastened down the breast, either by lacing, or, as is more common, with silver clasps*. A short jacket of the same, which has sometimes a little skirt, goes over this, and is fastened, likewise, about the breast with brass or silver clasps, or by lacing. Their stockings are of coarse wool, knitted and dyed black; and their shoes made of the skins of sheep or seals. Over the shoulders of many of them, on each side, were hanging thick ropes, made of horsehair, coarsely braided, with a noose at the end, by which they carried the hand-barrows with fish. The dress of the men was pretty nearly the same as that of our pilots, except that their clothes were generally black, and their stockings, also. In laborious employments, both they and the women frequently threw off their

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'* This gown (*Upphlutur*, in Icelandic,) however, is not, any more than the petticoats are, so long as to conceal much of their ill-shaped legs, otherwise, it would be a great hindrance to their walking along the rocks. I recollect one old lady, a constant labourer on the beach, who never had her dress come lower than her knees.'

vorked with nothing but their worsted shirt-sleeves over
As to the features of this groupe of ladies, the generality
e, assuredly, not cast in nature's happiest mould, and
ld women were the very ugliest mortals I had ever seen;
the younger ones, there were a few who would be
tty, even in England; and, in point of fairness of com-
celand girl, who has not been too much exposed to the
of the weather, will stand the comparison with ladies of
. They are generally of a shorter stature than our
have a good deportment, and, to judge from their ap-
oy an excellent state of health.'

n consists of about sixty or seventy houses, standing
of nearly equal length, at right angles to each other:
street of this capital is so encumbered with rock,
there 'such a thing as a cart in the country,' it
roceed in it above a few yards. Among the rocks
very side surround the town, are scattered wretched
e raised above the level of the ground; though none
ther here or in any part of the island, are really
er-ground, which has been generally supposed. The
he immediate neighbourhood bears a strong resem-
he summit of some of the highest mountains in
ing composed of fragments of rocks, and presenting
scattered patches of Alpine vegetation. Attempts

ce of a few half-starved sheep, such societies, as
rm a town, or even a village, would be highly pre-
nd unnecessary. There are merchants, who reside on
ts of the coast; but by far the greatest number of
s bring their produce to this place; some coming from
northern and eastern parts. Iron is what they are
ious to procure, for their horses' shoes, their scythes,
ments for cutting turf and digging. Those who live
erior of the country, and have no opportunity of going
he coast in the fishing season, take back, in exchange
allow and skins, the dried heads of the cod-fish, and
he fish themselves as are injured by the rain, and not
portation. These form the principal article of their
are eaten raw, with the addition of butter, &c.'—The
s on the beach, near Reikevig, are neither numerous
, with the exception of *Fucus ramentaceus*, which has
een found no where but in Iceland, and which is there
in great abundance.

aving paid his respects to Bishop Videlinus, who has
of five or six hundred volumes, Mr. Hooker sailed
e little island of Akaroe, for the purpose of seeing the
ks, which breed on this and all the other uninhabited
great numbers. These birds again occurred to his
n on Vidöe, whither he had gone to pay his respects
orthy and intelligent ex-governor, Stephensen; who
th raptures of *Baron Banks*[*], his generous presents,
dor with which he travelled, &c.

ere shown with great pleasure the immense number of eider-
ich breed on Vidöe, and which were now sitting on eggs or
s, exhibiting a most interesting scene. The *Stiftsamptman*
o and coax some of the old birds, who did not on that ac-
urb themselves. Almost every little hollow place, between
, is occupied with the nests of these birds, which are so
that we were obliged to walk with the greatest caution,
rampling upon them; but, besides this, the *Stiftsamptman*
ber of holes cut in the smooth and sloping side of a hill, in
, and in every one of these, also, there is a nest. No Nor-
wife is half so solicitous after her poultry, as the *Stiftsampt-*
his eider-ducks, which, by their down and eggs, afford him
able revenue; since the former sells for three rix-dollars
illings) a pound. Cats and dogs are, at this season of the
banished from the island, so that nothing may disturb
s.'

ave not yet done with Vidöe and its *hospitable* Stift-
n. Dinner was announced at half past one, although

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os. Banks was so called when he visited Iceland in 1772.

ious refreshment had prevented any importunate
f appetite :

shes are brought in singly : our first was a large turenne
hich is a favorite addition to the dinners of the richer
is made of sago, claret, and raisins, boiled so as to become
ucilage. We were helped to two soup plates full of this,
ate without knowing if any thing more was to come.
, however, was the soup removed, than two large salmon,
cut in slices, were brought on, and, with them, melted
king like oil, mixed with vinegar and pepper : this, like-
ery good, and, when we had with some difficulty cleared
, we hoped we had finished our dinners. Not so, for
hen introduced a turenne full of the eggs of the Cree, or
boiled hard, of which a dozen were put upon each of our
l, for sauce, we had a large bason of cream, mixed with
which were four spoons, so that we all ate out of the same
ed in the middle of the table. We petitioned hard to be
om eating the whole of the eggs upon our plates, but we
in vain. "You are my guests," said he, "and this is the
ou have done me the honour of a visit, therefore you must
uld have you ; in future, when you come to see me, you
you like." In his own excuse, he* pleaded his age for
ng our example, to which we could make no reply. We
with difficulty our eggs and cream ; but had no sooner
ur plates, than half a sheep, well roasted, came on, with a

and, we trusted it would terminate the feast. But all was not yet over; for a huge bowl of rum punch was brought in, and handed round in large glasses pretty freely, and to every glass a toast was given. If at any time we flagged in drinking, "Baron Banks" was always the signal for emptying our glasses, in order that we might have them filled with bumpers, to drink his health; a task that no Englishman ought to hesitate about complying with most gladly, though assuredly, if any exception might be made to such a rule, it would be in an instance like the present. We were threatened with still another bowl, after we should have drained this; and accordingly another actually came, which we were with difficulty allowed to refuse to empty entirely; nor could this be done, but by ordering our people to get the boat ready for our departure, when, having concluded this extraordinary feast * by three cups of tea each, we took our leave, and reached Reikevig about ten o'clock; but did not for some time recover the effects of this most involuntary intemperance †.'

On this occasion, the party was attended, according to the Icelandic custom, by the ladies of the house; who do not reckon it a menial office to serve at table, when strangers are present.

Our attention is next directed to an immense bed of lava, about six miles to the south of Reikevig, extending a length of twenty-five miles, and having its black and desolate surface broken into masses and fragments, which render it difficult and dangerous to traverse it, especially where quantities of the *Trichostomum* conceal the hollow parts from view. The breadth of this remarkable current varies from two to ten miles; and its hideously shattered aspect is supposed to have resulted from the expansive force of elastic fluids which escaped during the cooling of the lava.

Having resolved to visit the Geysers, the author procured horses and attendants. The guide rode before, holding a line fastened to the mouth of the first luggage-horse; a rope of twisted horse-hair, tied at one end to the tail of the latter, and at the other to the under jaw of the animal next in succession,

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'* On afterwards relating the anecdote of the *Stiftsamptman's* dinner to Count Tramp, he assured me that he had partaken of a similar one himself, when he first went over to the island, at which time soup was served upon the table, made from the boiling down of a whole bullock.

'† Indeed, we were somewhat in the same predicament as the guest of the Kamtschatdale, of whom Kracheninnikow further relates, "Il vomit pendant son repas jusqu' à dix fois; aussi après un festin de cette nature, loin de pouvoir manger pendant deux ou trois jours, il ne sauroit même regarder aucun aliment, sans que le coeur ne lui soulève."'

formed

stomed bond of union ; and thus all the luggage-
forwards. Such is the force of habit, even in
n, that, if these horses are not tied, 'they will
ing each other, to the great annoyance of any
y happen to be riding them, and may wish to
r than the rest, or to leave the regular line.'—
ward to Kirkat, the party then took nearly a
, over dreary moors and morasses, to Heider-
ving passed the night in their tents, and in
hey breakfasted next morning with the priest.
entertainment was not precisely that of our
unés, but is too characteristic of the state of
y to be passed over in silence :

y 9.—Early this morning, the priest came to invite
his house, which I readily agreed to, taking with
nd other provisions ; a precaution absolutely ne-
ouse would afford nothing but milk, skiur, butter,
even obliged to send back to my tent for a kettle to
. The only part of the house to which we were
t in which the fish, tallow, wool, milk, &c. were
ing the best part of an Icelandic building, is used
of strangers. It had walls of alternate layers of
without either cement to unite them, or plaister to
kedness, and the floor was the bare earth. One

by ice and snow. On a sudden we came to the brink of a great precipice, down which we looked into Almannegiaa, a monstrous chasm, extending almost as far as we could see, in a direct line, nearly north and south: through this our road lay. A smaller opening branches off in a south-west direction, and, a great number of large pieces of rock having fallen into it, the natives, without any assistance from art, make it serve as an entrance to the great chasm. Here, however, we were obliged to have all the luggage, even the saddles, taken off the horses, and carried on the shoulders of our people. The horses were then driven down between the great stones which composed the descent. A more rugged pass can hardly be conceived. As we descended by this rude but natural stair-case, the sides which were perpendicular became proportionably higher, till, winding round some huge fallen pieces of rock, we entered the great chasm.'

In this strikingly romantic district, are situated the homely church and parsonage of Thingevalle. The body of the former is crowded with old wooden chests, which not only answer the purpose of benches, but also contain the clothes of many of the congregation; who, as no lock is placed on the door, have, at all times, free access to their wardrobes. — On the east of the chasm, the author encountered some rare plants, as *Carex atrata*, *Saxifraga rivularis*, *Veronica fruticulosa*, *Polypodium arvonicum*, and *Hypnum Silesianum*.

At Middalr, another striking proof occurred of the poverty of the clergy; the salary of the priest of that place being only twenty rix-dollars a-year, to which he added a little by acting as a black-smith! Both he and two or three of his family eagerly picked up the heads and entrails of the fish, which the cook of the party had thrown on the ground. — In extensive desert-tracts of this neighbourhood, the *Lichen Islandicus* is produced in the greatest abundance. It is cropped every third year. The strong bitter which it contains is extracted by steeping it, for some time, in clean cold water; after which it is dried in the sun, reduced to powder, and boiled up with milk, so as to be of the consistency of a jelly, when cold. In this state, it is reckoned a wholesome and nourishing food: but the Icelanders appeared to be ignorant of its alleged virtues in pulmonary complaints.

Mr. Hooker's account of the Geysers will amply reward the trouble of perusal, and deservedly forms a prominent passage in his journal: but it is by much too long for our insertion. We shall only notice, in passing, that, during the space of an hour and a half, the New Geyser projected an uninterrupted column of water, to the elevation of one hundred and fifty feet, and in a body of seventeen feet in its widest diameter. Hard stones, of a large size, cast into the pipe, were instantly darted up to the top of the spout, or even higher, and dashed in pieces. Among these hot

s, were observed *Riccia glauca*, *Jungermannia angu-*
ome rare species of *Confervæ.* — The spring of Rey-
resented as much inferior to those of the principal
its water rising from an aperture not more than two
meter, and being thrown up to the height of six or
in frequently repeated jets, and with a loud and
noise, occasioned by the great quantity of air which
ed at the same time with the water.
olt, the author met with a woman who was afflicted
antiasis:

> e was so corroded by the disease, that it presented the
> ing spectacle I ever saw in my life, and her legs and
> swollen to an enormous size, these latter being, also,
> a thick and almost white skin, lying in great wrinkles;
> complained of no particular pain, and seemed to walk
> le ease. This terrible complaint is well known to be he-
> t it nevertheless frequently happens, that the children of
> d are, for many generations, quite free from it; an in-
> ich presented itself in the son of this very woman, who
> ly with her, and yet shewed not the least symptom of
> but, on the contrary, was one of the most healthy and
> ldren which this country had offered to my view. Nei-
> , does it appear to me to be infectious, any more than
> neous disorder common in the island. It is said to have

country, and the scantiness of population, precluded the idea of exporting sulphur from Iceland. Even the natives, it should seem, do not avail themselves of the profusion of this mineral product of their soil. 'Although in the vicinity of a remedy so noted for the cure of a certain disagreeable cutaneous complaint, we observed, by the swellings on the hands of our Kreisevig guide, and by his incessant scratching, that he had not, any more than some other people whom we saw living near the sulphur-springs, made such use of it as would be done in other countries; but, on the contrary, it rather appeared that the disorder was here more than usually prevalent.'

On his way to Borgafiord, Mr. Hooker accomplished the painful ascent of Skoul-a-fiel, the extreme peak of which scarcely affords room for standing. The scanty vegetation of the spots that are free from snow, in this elevated region, was chiefly composed of *Salix herbacea*, *Saxifraga oppositifolia*, *Polytrichum sexangulare*, and *Lichen geographicus*. Farther down the mountain, a rich botanical harvest, including some new grasses, a *Veronica*, a *Gnaphalium*, and five or six mosses, rewarded the author's search.

At Inderholme, the seat of the Tatsroed, or Chief Justice of the island, Mr. H. was entertained with lettered and elegant hospitality: but here, too, in spite of his remonstrances, he was served at table by the lady of the highest rank in the island, and her handsome daughter. The Tatsroed himself had received a classical and liberal education, and had translated into Icelandic poetry Pope's Essay on Man and his Universal Prayer.

'Two of the works which have come from the pen of the Tatsroed deserve particular mention: the titles, indeed, have altogether escaped my memory, but, if I am not mistaken, one of them was written in the Danish, the other in the Icelandic language, and both treated of the most remarkable occurrences that had taken place in the latter history of the country, among which it was peculiarly gratifying to an Englishman to see how earnestly and how completely *con amore* the author bears testimony to the noble and generous conduct of Sir Joseph Banks: impressing, in the strongest terms, upon the minds of his countrymen a sense of the obligations they owe to him for the unexampled assistance which he afforded to such Icelanders, as had, in the beginning of the present war, been made prisoners in Danish vessels; striving with the utmost zeal to procure their release, and supplying, with unbounded liberality, their pecuniary wants. I must, however, do the Icelanders the justice to say, that there is no need of the assistance of the press to excite a stronger feeling of gratitude on their part, for the benefits that have been conferred upon them by this exalted character; for the eager enquiries that were in every place made after his welfare by the aged, who still remember his person, and by the young, who know him from

necdotes told by their fathers and their grandfathers, were a
proof of the esteem and veneration they entertain for him:
ot unfrequently, while wandering over the wastes of Ice-
heart has glowed, and I have felt a pride, that I should
ashamed to dissemble, at being able to call such a man my
my friend.'

the numerous hot springs at Reykholt, the Snorra-
bath of Snorro Sturleson, is particularized both on
f the comparatively fertile soil in which it is situated,
its having been the residence of the historian of the
ho, in the early part of the thirteenth century, devoted
o rural and literary occupations, but fell a victim to a
assassin, just as he had entered on the sixty-second
s age.

gular portion of Mr. Hooker's Journal terminates with
to Reikevig, where he waited in almost daily ex-
of his departure for England: but he subjoins some
nd truly valuable observations on the botany and
f the island. The amount of its vegetable and ani-
es is far from extensive. Of the former, however,
hich in other countries are found only at very consi-
levations are here observed growing in the plains and
nd near the shores of the sea; and, in the class
mia, many striking novelties will amply repay the

disperse and return to their homes. A desire to be an eye-witness of so singular a fact, led me to go to this gentleman's room one morning, just as these animals were about to collect. The spot they frequented was across the river, which there are but two ways of passing from the town without swimming; the one a bridge, the other some stepping stones, each situated at a small distance from the other. By both these approaches to the field, the dogs belonging to Reikevig were running with the greatest speed, while their companions of the neighbouring country were hastening to the place of rendezvous from other quarters. We counted twenty-five of them, not all of the true Icelandic stock (the *Fiaar-buundar*), but some of different kinds, which had probably been brought to the country by the Danes; and I presume it was one of these, much larger and stronger than the rest, who placed himself upon an eminence in the centre of the crowd. In a few seconds, three or four of them left the main body, and ran to the distance of thirty or forty yards, where they skirmished in a sort of sham battle; after which, one or two of these returned, and one, two, or three others immediately took their places: party succeeding party, till most, if not all, had had their share in the sport. The captain remained stationary. The engagement was in this manner kept up by different detachments, the dogs continuing their amusement in perfect playfulness and good humour, though not without much barking and noise, for about a quarter of an hour, when the whole of them dispersed, and took the way to their respective homes in a less hasty manner than they had arrived.'

From this anecdote, and from others of a still more ludicrous nature, which are reported of the monkey-tribes, are we not warranted to infer that some of the inferior animals not only congregate for the purpose of amusement, but that their sportive movements are occasionally regulated by a sense of humour?

Twenty-four scholars are publicly maintained at Bessestedr, the only Latin school in the island, and in some respects a very wretched establishment: but many of the inhabitants acquire a very competent knowlege in Greek and Latin, without entering its walls.

'An attachment to reading and study, if not a necessary consequence of the long winters, which for many months immure the natives almost entirely in their houses, is certainly materially increased by that circumstance; it being impossible to find the comforts of society in so scanty a population, and the enjoyment derived from literary pursuits being the only resource left them against the tediousness of such a confinement. The *Sagas*, or traditional histories of the country, are well known to the lower ranks of people, and the comparatively few who are not able to read, commit them to memory; the delight of a winter's evening in Iceland being for the old to repeat them to their infant posterity, by which means they are continually handed down from generation to generation, as the Poems of Ossian among the natives of the Hebrides. That learning in Iceland has been in a state of decline for some centuries past is allowed even

e present inhabitants ; but there are still many able scholars
theologians who would do honour to any age or country.
to this day much cultivated, and there is a custom, when
f rank visit their island, and confer upon it, or upon its in-
any signal benefit, to celebrate their actions in poems
on the occasion.'

Latin specimens of this last description are exhibited
pendix.

he ensuing affecting recital, we shall close our ex-
n this amusing and instructive volume. On the voyage
ys Mr. H.,

ghtful wind now added to our happiness, and we congra-
h other on the prospect of a short and prosperous voyage
ive shores ; but the next morning what different ideas
pon our minds, when about six or seven o'clock we were
by a smoke and a strong smell of burning, that issued
ifferent hatchways, especially from that in the fore part of
nd left us no room to doubt but that the vessel was on fire,
he flames would soon burst out ! No one who has not
similar situation can have an idea of what we felt. We
twenty leagues distant from the nearest shore, a barren and
e coast, and the wind was blowing from that quarter, so
n even this was impossible. We were also unprovided with
ient to have contained one half of our crew, nor could any
assisted us in such a tempestuous ocean ; so that our joy

gained, and such the volumes of smoke and fire which instantaneously burst forth, that delay only endangered the lives of the men, and it was found necessary almost immediately to abandon the attempt and give up the vessel to her fate. By twelve or one o'clock every living thing, not even excepting the sheep, cats and dogs, was secured, but of our property it was impossible to save any thing, excepting only a very few articles that were with us in the cabin; for the fire, at the time of its first discovery, had taken hold of the place in which every thing most valuable was kept. We were but too happy to escape with our lives, and with the clothes upon our backs, and even for this we are in no small degree indebted to the extraordinary exertions of Mr. Jorgensen, at a time when nearly the whole of the ship's crew seemed paralysed with fear. He, too, as would be expected by all who know his character, was the last to quit the vessel. Just at this time the wind, which had blown fresh, suddenly fell, and we were compelled by the succeeding calm to be the near and melancholy spectators of the destruction of a ship of five hundred tons burthen, with all her sails set, and a cargo principally consisting of oil and tallow, the whole worth not less than £25,000. The flames first seized the sails and rigging of the foremast, which being soon destroyed, they communicated to those of the main and mizen masts, enveloping the whole in one general conflagration. Shortly afterwards they subsided, leaving the naked masts here and there on fire; but when the tallow and oil boiled over and ran in wide cataracts of fire down the sides of the vessel, blazing over every part of the hull, the scene was awful beyond description. The clouds of smoke, greater by far than those of steam from the largest eruption of the Geyser, rose to an almost inconceivable height in one steady column, which was only at intervals disturbed by the discharge of one or other of the guns, or by the falling of the masts. It was not long before the timbers of the vessel were destroyed, but the copper bottom continued floating about, like a great cauldron filled with every thing that was combustible in a liquid and blazing state, till the sad spectacle was concealed from our view by a dense fog at four or five o'clock in the afternoon, when with a fairer breeze we steered back for Reikevig, the Orion not affording accommodation for so many people as were now on board, nor being furnished with provisions enough for a voyage to England. It had been whispered among our crew previously to their leaving the Margaret and Anne, that some of the Danes had probably set fire to the vessel, and this suspicion was now confirmed even by their own confessions. Two of them, therefore, who were most strongly suspected, were put in irons, and the beds, &c., of those belonging to the Orion searched for any combustible matter by which a similar act of villany might here be committed. The result of this search was, that a large piece of touchwood was found concealed under one of their hammocks, and it was ascertained that it was with some of the same substance that one or two of the Danes in the Margaret and Anne, went down the fore-hatch-way at about ten o'clock on the Saturday night, and set fire to the wool, which, owing to its slow mode of burning, was not discovered till the following morning.'

In

equence of this misfortune, the author, on the polite
of Captain Jones, took his passage on board the
oop of war; and, after having encountered very
eather, he arrived in Leith Roads, on the 20th Sep-

already devoted so much of our space to the contents
ooker's journal, we must be excused from noticing
articles in the Appendix, relative to the Revolution (a
evolutions!) which took place in Iceland in 1809, and
of which have been communicated to our readers
he medium of the public prints.

ount of Hecla, with some particulars of other re-
volcanic mountains in Iceland, though chiefly and
compiled from the observations of others, will be
by every student of geology; because it brings many
remarks under one general point of view, and ex-
ormation from various sources which were not for-
y accessible.

ncluding article in the Appendix exhibits a catalogue
lic plants, principally taken from Zoega's *Flora Is-*
d Mohir—*Forfög til en Islandsk Naturhistorie*, with
tional species which the author was enabled to insert
of Sir George Mackenzie's and Mr. Paulsen's collec-
his own researches. That the latter would have

Art. II. *A View of the natural, political, and commercial Circumstances of Ireland.* By Thomas Newenham, Esq., Author of an Inquiry into the Progress and Magnitude of the Population of Ireland. 4to. pp. 393. 1l. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

The folly, so often ridiculed, of labouring at the attainment of distant and difficult objects, while we neglect the cultivation of those that are within our reach, is not less conspicuous in the conduct of governments than in that of individuals. The statesmen of this country, for example, have not scrupled to cause a lavish expenditure of blood and treasure in pursuit of remote conquests in unhealthy climates, while they have doomed to comparative neglect the fisheries on our own shores. Yet it would be no difficult task to prove that the latter is by far more conducive to the favourite objects of a commercial state, we mean the acquisition of wealth and the formation of seamen. One comfort, however, remains to us in the midst of our miscalculations; viz. that the enemy who threatens our independence is not wiser, in respect to civil government at least, than ourselves, but wastes in Spain (of which the conquest, if achieved, would be pernicious to him,) a fund of treasure and of labour which, if employed at home, could not fail to tend remarkably to the consolidation of his power. Of all examples of neglect, however, whether we look to the headstrong violence of autocrats or to the blind jealousy of traders, we shall find none more extraordinary than the case of Ireland. Situated as favourably for the increase of the power and wealth of Great Britain as our fondest wishes could desire, its resources have been as little known to us as those of countries of which the position was remote, and with which our connection was temporary and precarious. Twelve years have now passed since the Union; yet very few among us are apprized of the extent of provision-supplies which Ireland has poured into our harbours, in these years of deficient harvests; or of the number of seamen and soldiers whom she has sent forth to fight our battles. Still less are we qualified to form an idea of the extension that might be given, by the operation of time and good government, both to the produce of her soil and the magnitude of her levies.

Mr. Newenham took up the pen, above seven years ago, to correct the ignorance of the British public with regard to the population of Ireland, and wrote a book to which we bore on the whole a favourable testimony, although we could not regard it as correct in composition nor as altogether accurate in calculation *. Indefatigable in research, he has, in the work

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* M. Rev. Vol. xlvii. N. S. p. 235.

undertaken to afford a more comprehensive view
ces of his native country and of the substantial be
England may derive from them. On this, as on the
asion, we have pleasure in expressing our sense of
beral and benevolent intentions. His information
l to the Catholics, in point of population, of habits
of political feeling, is particularly interesting at an
n they have been taught to consider the termination
trictions as arrived. Though himself a Protestant,
as he informs his readers, chiefly to persons of his
asion, he is as zealous an advocate for the comfort
tability of the Catholics, as if he had been from his
a member of that neglected body. — His book may
into two general heads, 'the great natural advantages
and 'the obstacles to the improvement of these ad-
at least, such is the view which we shall take of it,
elling on the long and embarrassing titles in which
ham is fond of dealing. An abstract of the work
ful for two reasons, of a very different nature; viz.
of its information, and the difficulty of obtaining
ation in its present shape. As it stands at present,
has neither the clearness of a dictionary nor the
a connected disquisition, but consists of a mass of
nskilfully illustrated as if authorship were in its

with deep anchorage. The river Shannon affords at Scattery island another fine and spacious harbour. Even names that are scarcely known to ordinary readers, such as Blacksod, Birtirbui, Broadhaven, Crookhaven, and Castlehaven, are found to be the designations of harbours as good as or better than those of Kinsale and Waterford. Greatly superior as England is to her continental neighbours in extent of maritime accommodation, she must be acknowleged to fall considerably short of Ireland. Her acccess to the south and west, with the prevailing winds, is much less easy; and on a comparison of the sea-ports in the sister-kingdoms, we perceive that several of those of England are artificial. It follows that, when Ireland shall have been blessed with an equally long enjoyment of commerce and good government, a considerable augmentation of her harbours may be expected to take place. She counts above one hundred estuaries on her coast, and many of them might without difficulty be fitted for the reception of ships.

The connection between good harbours and depth of water along a coast is nowhere better exemplified than in Ireland. The soundings are generally upwards of twenty fathoms within a quarter of a mile of the land; and the approach without a pilot is less hazardous in Ireland than in most other countries, three-fourths of its shore being free from hidden dangers. The chief exception to this statement is that part of the east coast which extends from Dublin harbour to the Saltee islands in the county of Wexford. — In describing the navigable rivers with which Ireland abounds, Mr. Newenham has no hesitation in putting the Shannon in competition with the Thames; next to the Shannon, he ranks the Barraw, which is navigable for a course of sixty-eight miles; and then the Suir, navigable for forty-three miles. Many others fall not greatly short of these admirable streams; proving that, when inland navigation shall become general in Ireland, the conveyance by water, natural and artificial, will be as commodious as an ardent well-wisher of commerce could desire.

With respect to roads, Mr. Newenham makes an equally favourable report of the state of his native country. No where, he says, are better materials to be obtained for the construction of level and durable highways. Lime-stone and lime-stone-gravel are found in most parts; and since the absurd custom of mending roads by compulsory labour has been exchanged for an assessment in money, under the direction of the Grand Juries, the condition of the Irish roads, great and small, has been progressively improving. This alteration took place in 1759, when it was enacted that old roads should be widened to twenty-one feet in the clear, and that no new road should

dth than thirty feet. The intervention of the
vas rendered necessary by the appropriation of
ney, in an undue proportion, to the improve-
parts of the country in which the estates of cer-
of influence were situated. The total amount
ed annually throughout Ireland by authority of
ies, for roads, bridges, jails, and other public
half a million, of which nearly 300,000l. are
ads alone. This sum is, we believe, much too
eans of the country, and has been productive of
tions. Those which were raised by the "Hearts
Hearts of Steel Boys" having occurred among
d at a season when all was quiet in regard to
hardly be ascribed to any other cause. Mr.
clines entering on the expediency of so heavy a
at a loss to say whether the money is properly
ot. He finds himself justified in using the lan-
dence on a topic of much greater interest, the
sister-island:

> mildness and equability, the climate of Ireland is sur-
> ew, if by any other in Europe. Its general mildness
> hat, except in the northern counties, the rich pastures,
> have been fairly treated, exhibit, in the midst of win-
> beautiful verdure imaginable, affording sustenance

' The atmosphere of Ireland is certainly more humid than that of ngland; but, according to the observations which the writer has een in the habit of making in both countries, for several years, the ains are neither heavier nor more frequent in the former than in the tter. It is to be observed, too, that the humidity of the Irish atosphere proves by no means injurious to the health of the inhaitants.

' The climate of Ireland, confessedly as favourable to the producion of barley and oats as that of England, has generally been consiered otherwise with regard to wheat. This, however, with the exeption of some of the northern counties, the writer can by no means dmit.

' The true immediate causes of the acknowledged general inferioity of the Irish to the English wheat, are, inattention, slovenliness, d want of skill on the part of the Irish farmers.'

This account of the climate is followed by an enumeration the minerals and fossils of Ireland, in which we cannot now llow the author, farther than to remark that the great misrtune attendant on the beds of iron-stone in Ireland is the nt of firing in their neighbourhood. Coal is generally in ficient quantity; and as to timber, so true is the old accuion, that Mr. Newenham is inclined to believe that more trees cut down in one year in the single county of Montgomery n in all Ireland together. However, one striking exception n the disadvantages commonly attendant in Ireland on the of these metallic treasures is to be found in the case of igna, in the county of Leitrim. A variety of fortunate cirstances appear to be combined in this favoured spot. undance of ore, plenty and cheapness of fuel, and an easy ess to navigation both by the Shannon and the two great als, are advantages which must one day render the manuture and exportation of the iron of Arigna a source of exsive wealth.—Next comes the subject of fisheries, on which . Newenham has adduced the opinion of former writers, tother with some observations of his own:

" The fishery of Ireland," says Sir William Temple, " might ve a mine under water, as rich as any under ground, if it were proved to those vast advantages it is capable of." Mr. Arthur ung truly remarks, " that there is scarcely a part of Ireland but t is well situated for some fishery of consequence."

' Mr. Brice, in his report to the Committee on the Irish Fisheries, clared that as many herrings might have been caught off the Rosses 1782 as would have loaded all the ships in England.

' In 1784, the herrings came upon the north-west coast about the last ek in June, and continued until about the last week in September, ere was, for a considerable part of that time, no other demand n from the country, and the take was so very great, and the dend so small, that incredible numbers were thrown away; and, upon an average price for a month, they did not exceed 10d. per thousand.

'Since that year, the herring fishery of Ireland has greatly declined. These fish, however, still frequent its numerous harbours and rivers' mouths, in sufficient abundance to supply the wants of the people in the adjacent districts; and to furnish a small supply for foreign markets: and their return in their former shoals may be rationally expected. In fact they re-appeared and were taken, in great abundance, last winter off the Western coast. The sprats still arrive in prodigious shoals. The writer has seen immense quantities of oil obtained from them at Kinsale; and their remains employed in manuring land.

'As for the cod, ling, and hake, they are in as great abundance as ever. The report of Captain Fraser in 1801, respecting the fishery on the Nymph Bank, off the South-eastern coast, represents it in an extremely favourable light. He considers it as superior to the fishery on the Dogger Bank.

'Plaise, sole, haddock, and turbot, abound on many parts of the coast. In some of the small towns on the west and south-west coasts, the last may be frequently purchased for two and three shillings a piece. In the city of Cork, where the Roman Catholics are to the Protestants as upwards of three to one, seated moreover in a very populous district chiefly inhabited by the former, whose fasts induce a greater demand for fish than is the case in Protestant countries, the ordinary price of a good cod-fish, which would sell for at least sixpence per pound, or from 10s. to 12s. in England, is only two shillings; and the prices of all other fish are proportionately low.

'The salmon fisheries of Ireland are, in proportion, infinitely more numerous and productive than those of any other country the natural history whereof has fallen into the writer's hands.'

In treating of the produce of the land, Mr. N. sets out with the assumption 'of its being very generally admitted that the increase of food may be made to surpass the greatest probable increase of people.' Now the fact is that, since the circulation of a well known work on population, a contrary opinion has become general; although the converts to it would be shaken in their faith by an attentive consideration of the example of Ireland. Wretched as is its system of agriculture, the mere circumstance of the general cultivation of potatoes affords a proof of the practicability of a vast extension of our means of subsistence. An acre of land under potatoe-culture will supply nourishment, after a suitable deduction for their watery nature, to six times as many persons as an acre of wheat; and by an improved method of cultivating that valuable root, it is possible to double and even treble its ordinary produce. The average growth of potatoes throughout Ireland is about fifty barrels for the English acre: but, by a new mode (that of Mr. Rawson *)

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* See the Statistical Survey of the county of Kildare.

the

e quantity is carried to one hundred and twenty barrels; and, hen we calculate that ten persons may be supported by the oduce of a single acre, we need not altogether give way to e feelings of those who take alarm at the rapid advance of opulation. In few countries is the labour of art in the improvement of land less obstructed by natural obstacles than in reland. From the mildness of the climate, the hills are covered with herbage to the summit; and sheep and cattle in mmense droves are fed on them, till they are nearly fit for the utcher. How different is this from the barren heath of Scotland and of the greatest part of Wales! The bogs of Ireland, which have been so long allowed to remain undrained, are now in many parts undergoing a course of improvement which will not fail to demonstrate how great an addition they will make to our agricultural domain. "In these bogs and mountains," says Mr. Arthur Young, "is to be practised the most profitable husbandry in the King's dominions." — With the exception of a few counties, lime-stone is found in great abundance throughout Ireland; as is also that valuable manure, lime-stone-gravel. Marl is likewise in abundance; and, along the coast, the farmers may derive great benefit from the application of sea-weed. Yet these various advantages have hitherto, in a great measure, been thrown away. Capital has not yet accumulated among the farmers and graziers of Ireland; and among the land-holders, the prevailing practice of excessive hospitality absorbs both the time and the funds which are required for the improvement of their property. Their estates are often encumbered; and they appear to have very little idea of the facility with which expence may be reduced without foregoing respectability, when the attainment of a beneficial object is in prospect. It is apparent, however, that agriculture will occupy in future a much larger proportion of the wealth and industry of Ireland, than commerce or manufactures. The inadequacy of the crop of Great Britain to its annual wants throws open a convenient market for the surplus-produce of Ireland; and it is now generally understood that the application of capital to farming is less precarious, and eventually nore profitable, than its application to the speculations of trade. ere the merchants and manufacturers of England aware how uch more it is the interest of the Irish to cultivate agriculture an commerce, we should hear much less of those alarms of valship which have long embittered the relations of the two untries. — Mr. Arthur Young's report is necessarily confined the particular tracts through which he travelled: but his ncomiums are so frequent as to suggest similar conclusions ith regard to the parts which he did not see. Speaking of an extensive district in the county of Limerick, he says, (as quoted by Mr. N.)

" It is a rich, mellow, crumbling, putrid, sandy loam, 18 inches to three feet deep, the colour a reddish brown. It is a dry sound land, and would do for turnips exceedingly well, for carrots, for cabbages, and in a word for every thing. I think, upon the whole, it is the richest soil I ever saw, and such as is applicable to every purpose you can wish: it will fat the largest bullock, and at the same time do equally well for sheep, for tillage, for turnips, for wheat, for beans, and in a word for every crop and circumstance of profitable husbandry." "Towards Clonmel, the whole way is through the same rich vein of red sandy loam I have so often mentioned; I examined it in several fields, and found it to be of an extraordinary fertility."

'In another part of his book, he says "The Curragh of Kildare is a sheep walk of above 4,000 English acres, forming a more beautiful lawn than the hand of art ever made. Nothing can exceed the extreme softness of the turf, which is of a verdure that charms the eye, and is highly set off by the gentle inequality of surface. The soil is a fine dry loam on a sandy bottom." "There are tracts of such incomparable land, on the Earl of Kingston's estate, in the county of Cork, that I have seen very little equal to them except in Tipperary, Limerick, and Roscommon. A deep friable loam, moist enough for the spontaneous growth to fat a bullock, and dry enough to be perfectly under command in tillage; if I was to name the characteristics of an excellent soil, I should say that upon which you may fat an ox, and feed off a crop of turnips. By the way I recollect little or no such land in England, yet *it is not uncommon in Ireland.*"

Possessed of all these advantages, how has it happened, asks Mr. Newenham, in the words of Sir William Temple, that Ireland has not conferred " a mighty increase of strength and revenue on the crown of England ?" This question naturally leads to the consideration of the second part of the present work, viz.

Obstacles to the improvement of Ireland. It is difficult to determine whether the conduct of the British legislature or that of its obsequious subordinate, the legislature of Ireland, has been most instrumental in retarding the natural advancement of our sister-island. Ever since the Restoration, but more particularly since the Revolution, the mercantile jealousy of England has been the fountain from which the waters of bitterness have flowed to her less powerful neighbour; and the claims of selfish individuals, instead of being resisted by the English government, seem to have been acceptable to it, apparently from a secret wish to keep Ireland in that state of debility which rendered her most easily governed. "The object of the policy of the British government towards Ireland (said Mr. Pitt in 1785,) has been bar her from the enjoyment and use of her own resources, o make her completely subservient to the interests and nce of Great Britain." It would be superfluous to enter an argument to prove how injurious such a system is to wn interests, and how much the prosperity of Ireland is rosperity. The fact unhappily is that commercial jealousy itherto been the inseparable attendant of our commercial ity; and that all who sought popularity, whether in speeches writings, have come forwards as the advocates of mono-

The varying exigencies of a nation, which, like Great in, is belligerent as well as commercial, are, as Mr. Newen- justly remarks, (p. 90.) extremely unfavourable to the ex- ion of this spirit. The opposition of a few disinterested leep-thinking men was soon overpowered amid the clamour lfish traders or equally selfish legislators; and Ireland re- d for a century the same treatment at our hands, with that r which our West-India-colonies now labour. Unfor- ely, various circumstances in the situation of Ireland had verful tendency to favour the continuance of this impolitic ation:

rom the House of Lords, which comprised a very great portion chief land-proprietors of Ireland, or those whose interest was pally at stake, little resistance could well be expected. A very lerable number of them resided constantly in England, where ver many of them had large possessions, and consequently were lly as much interested in behalf of the welfare of that country, could be in behalf of the welfare of Ireland. Those few who ed their parliamentary duty, in the latter, generally found them- as the Journals of their house shew, out-numbered by the al Lords, who appear to have been very punctual in their at- ce; and of whom a large portion were Englishmen, and very d territorial possessions of a permanent nature in Ireland.

he House of Commons, composed of persons whom the nature ir election*, and the duration of their legislative powers †, ex- d much more from popular restraint than the members of the r House in Britain, and who consequently were more liable to yed by the expedients which every clumsy minister may resort puted moreover, either nominally or really by a minority of ople, in a perpetual state of hostility with the majority, and uently destitute of national support; were not only not qua- o rescue their country from its ignominious and miserable con- but sufficiently pre-disposed to adopt such further measures, ctive of the welfare of Ireland, as might occasionally be sug-

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The open boroughs in Ireland were few in comparison of those land which may be deemed so.

The parliament continued during the life of the reigning king,' 67, after which it became octennial.

gested or pressed by successive viceroys, no ways interested in its prosperity, but almost uniformly studious to render the tenor of their government subservient to the views of that of Britain.

'As for the constituent body of Ireland, consisting exclusively of Protestants, they were at all times easily alarmed by any representation, however visionary, of mischievous designs in the contemplation of their Roman Catholic countrymen; or even by occasional returns exhibiting an increase of their numeral strength; and under the recurrent impulse of fear, readily acquiesced, for a long time, in every measure tending to the gratification of that country on which alone they relied for support. Besides, among the individuals of this narrowed order of constituents, every thing in the gift of government, and every one of that endless and diversified multitude of jobs, for which Ireland has ever been notorious, were exclusively distributed: and this partial distribution had necessarily the effect of diffusing personal content, or at least that of silencing clamours which would otherwise have been audible. The inevitable final result of this unpropitious combination was, a very scanty and disproportionate acquisition of commercial wealth on the part of Ireland; and an almost utter extinction of a spirit of industry therein.

'To cramp, obstruct, and render abortive the industry of the Irish, were the objects of the British trader. To gratify commercial avarice, to serve Britain at the expense of Ireland, or to facilitate the government of the latter, were the varying objects of the British minister. To keep down the *papists*, cost what it would, and to augment their own revenues by the public money, instead of urging the adoption of wise, liberal, and patriotic measures, calculated to quadruple the rents of their estates, were the objects of the reputed representatives of the Irish people; and to secure themselves from retaliations on the part of the Roman Catholics, whom they were encouraged to prosecute, and taught to dread, was the general object of the Irish gentry.'

To enumerate all the branches of trade from which we persisted to exclude the Irish, till the year 1782, would be almost endless. Though favourably situated for the West-India-trade, we did not permit them either to ship goods to these colonies or to receive produce from them, with the exception of rum; an exception which had indirectly in view our own advantage. No sooner had they begun to make progress in the woollen manufacture, than our ancestors prohibited the exportation of fuller's earth, or scouring clay, to Ireland; and on the 9th June 1698. the House of Lords presented an address to King William,

> "Praying that His Majesty would be pleased, in the most public and effectual way that may be, to declare to all his subjects of Ireland that the growth and increase of the woollen manufacture there hath long and will be ever looked upon with great jealousy by all his subjects of this kingdom."

the 30th of June, the Commons presented a similar address; Majesty was pleased to say, in answer, "*Gentlemen, I will at in me lies to discourage the woollen manufacture in Ireland.*"

e addresses were speedily followed by very decisive es. The Irish were prohibited from exporting wool or cloth to any other country than England; the impor- f these articles into England was loaded with a very luty; and to crown all, a farther duty was added on portation from Ireland. A similar oppression was exer- regard to the lesser manufactures of glass, silks, gloves, nd even the exportation of cattle, the traffic generally or and ill peopled country, was subjected to discourage- At one time the importation of cattle into England was ed with a very large impost; and at another time it was d a common nuisance, and forbidden on pain of for- In short, the linen manufacture was the only one in which received protection or encouragement at the hands rnment. A sum of about 24,000l. was annually paid the Treasury to the trustees of that manufacture, to be ed in its extension; a favour, however, which is to be l less to a wish for the general prosperity of Ireland than ircumstance of the linen weavers being, for the most otestants. Many acts of the Irish parliament, which ed to advance the national prosperity, were, as Mr. ham endeavours to shew in a very long section, (p. 122.) inefficacious and illusive; and the few British acts, served any purpose of utility to Ireland, are easily to be o the influence of necessity or of self interest.

evils occasioned to Ireland by the unhappy prevalence ious animosity have been still greater than those which sen from the ill judged policy of England. At the memo- a of the Reformation, the mass of the Irish nation was too sunken in ignorance to perceive the imposture and corruption the Church of Rome; and being too remote from the Europe to be actuated by the impulse of innovation, mained blindly obedient to the dictates of their priest- The promulgation by law of the protestant faith, before ient time had been allowed to produce conviction, was re calculated to rouse the opposition rather than to at- e acquiescence of the native Irish. The converts to the th were obnoxious to them as the descendants of those d invaded and oppressed their forefathers. Moreover, f dignities and emoluments of the Catholic church were by antient families, the whole of whose interest was y exerted to retain the attachment of the people. Had the good fortune of Ireland to be wisely and steadily governed, before the two religions became the symbols of political animosity, it seems not altogether improbable that the protestant religion would, in the course of time, have triumphed over that of Rome: but, for many ages after the conquest of Ireland, the vice-regal government and its subordinate agents were at liberty to abandon themselves to all the abuses which are incidental to a remote and uncontrouled authority. Local distance was then a much more serious affair than in an age of easy communication; and the kings of England were almost always occupied with foreign or with civil war. Ireland, in short, was like a Roman province, governed without attention to the voice of the people, and by a class of men whose chief object was to accumulate personal emoluments. The sanguinary rebellions in the reign of Queen Elizabeth were prompted less by religious feeling than by the political emissaries of her inveterate enemy, Philip II.: but, as the reformed religion had made no progress among the native Irish, the insurgents were all Roman Catholics; while in the forces opposed to them the majority were of the Church of England. Vast tracts of the confiscated lands of the Catholic insurgents were distributed among the successful Protestants, especially in Ulster; where the descendants of the antient Irish had long preserved their hereditary domains. Hence the origin of that implacable religious enmity, which has been the curse of Ireland for two hundred years; and from this time forwards, the Catholic regarded the Protestant as an insatiable plunderer, while the Protestant beheld in his Catholic countryman an obstinate and vindictive rebel. In the massacre of the Protestants in 1641, the malignancy of religious enmity was, in truth, the chief cause of the civil horrors: but yet it was not the *sole* cause, since the loss of their paternal lands was uppermost in the minds of many of the insurgents. "The origin of the war," says Sir William Petty, "was a desire of the Romists to recover the church-revenue, worth about 110,000l. a year, and of the common Irish to get all the Englishmen's estates; and of ten or twelve grandees to get the empire of the whole." Never did a more disgusting and sanguinary struggle exist:

'The horror (says Mr. N.) excited by the barbarous indiscriminate massacre, which had recently been perpetrated, heightened almost to madness the sectarian malignancy of the Protestants; and this malignancy, sublimated, as it were, and combined with revenge, avarice, and fear of utter extirpation, necessarily hurried them into the most savage hostility. While the imposing devices of priestcraft, the animating appeals of patriotism, the diversified artifices of ambition, the piteous wailings of poverty, and the pathetic tales of misfortune, conjointly operating on a people susceptible of the most lively impressions, instigated the former to deeds of extraordinary ferocity. Each party became infuriate against the other by a series of battles, and multiplied acts of rapine and barbarity.

'Truces were deceitful. Reciprocal hatred and distrust were excessive. Reconciliation seemed to have become impracticable. The permanent co-existence of Irish Protestants and Roman Catholics appeared almost impossible. Each thirsted for the blood; each aimed at the utter extermination of the other. At length the conquering arm of Cromwell terminated the long, disastrous, and devastating contest.

'But though a further effusion of blood, and a continuation of the ravages and calamities of war, were thus prevented, the mutual enmity of the Protestants and Roman Catholics still continued unabated. That of the latter was immensely aggravated, and effectually confirmed. The invaders, the victors, the dispossessors, were Protestants; the invaded, the vanquished, the dispossessed, were Roman Catholics. Their principles were irreconcileable. And each brooded incessantly over the past atrocities of the other. Thus did the elements of intestine war acquire additional energy. Peace, however, resulting, not from a terrifying retrospect of the multitudinous evils of war, but from a conscious inability, on the part of the Roman Catholics, to contend against the Protestants, with even the faintest prospect of success, continued for upwards of thirty years.

'At length the infatuated James, yielding to the impolitic counsels of men who, perhaps, might have governed a religious fraternity well, but who were utterly ignorant of the government of an empire; and taught to regard the Irish Roman Catholics as fit instruments for the accomplishment of his visionary and despotic projects, gradually raised, invigorated, and encouraged them.

'By the obsequious forbearance, or constrained acquiescence of Clarendon, and the indefatigable exertions of the zealous and plenipotent Tyrconnel, they were once more prepared to renew the terrible conflict.

'But England was not then, as on the preceding occasion, paralised by internal commotions. The prince who had ascended the abdicated throne was an experienced general and a sound politician. The visionary James was greatly overmatched. The Irish Roman Catholics were, in consequence, completely vanquished; stripped of political power; hurled from every post of trust and emolument; and almost entirely dispossessed of their remaining lands *.'

From the last of these inauspicious epochs, we must begin to date the enactment of those laws which, by aiming to crush the power of the Roman Catholics, proved the source of incalculable injury to the whole of Ireland. It was then that the Catholics were disqualified from holding offices of honour and trust, and treated as aliens in their native land. Marriage between them and the Protestants, from which it is probable that

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'* The forfeitures, on this occasion, amounted to 1,060,792 Irish, or 1,718,307 English acres.'

onsequences might have flowed, was forbidden; and
as tempted to forsake his father's creed by a law which
him, on conversion, the descent of the paternal estate,
red the father only tenant for life. Thus, says the
nong the cheerful and hospitable people of Ireland,
ose who adored the same Trinity, and agreed in all
al points of religion, a difference in a few speculative
fessedly inoperative in social life, served unfortunately
of political hostility, and became the aliment of mutual
Such antipathies could yield only to the gradual
of time, when the generations, who had been the
ufferers, had passed away. Alleviating, however, as
he penal laws had still a strong tendency to perpe-
ation and distrust: they prevented the Catholics from
mselves to a level with the higher ranks of Protest-
the few, whose estates had escaped confiscation, were
educated in foreign countries and discouraged from
their own. Hence, even after the lapse of many
familiar intercourse arose between the members of
ligions, to smoothe the asperities which were con-
seasons of turbulence; no coincidence of pursuits;
ns of interest; and few individual friendships. Pa-
all its branches was confined to Protestants; and
vidious offices of tax-gatherers, tithe-proctors, con-

Our war with America, which has been the forerunner and use of such extraordinary scenes on the Continent of Europe, s destined to have a material influence also on the state of land. The military force in that country, consisting generally 10,000 men, was reduced to half the number by our trans- antic expeditions; and the defence of the island was com- tted to Protestant volunteers. The number of the latter, in- easing rapidly, exceeded, in the course of a few years, 40,000 en, and comprized almost the whole of the landed and com- ercial gentlemen among the Protestants. Though they asso- ted at first with no other view than that of the defence of eir country, the course of events soon pointed their attention the evils of their political situation; and a diminution of the port of linen, a decay in the general trade of the island,—and onsequent reduction of the revenue and rent of land, though e effects, more immediately, of an unfortunate war,—were ced back to the oppressive influence of English jealousy. ese subjects were canvassed by men of all ranks and occupa- ns, when brought together by military duty; and animated npositions soon found their way into the public papers. A g course of internal tranquillity had soothed the antipa- s of Catholics and Protestants; and the successful resistance he United States taught the Irish nation that a point which denied to sollicitation might be conceded to power. The e was thus spred throughout the island, and every Irishman me impatient to seize the happy moment of putting an end ommercial thraldoms.—One of the first proofs of returning idence between the Catholics and Protestants was afforded he act passed in 1778, which enabled the former to take es, as well as to devise and transfer their lands, while it ally repealed the temptation held out to the rising genera- to abandon the faith of their ancestors. The beneficial ct of this act was soon apparent, in transferring to the cul- tion of the soil a share of that capital and industry which, he part of the Catholics, had for many years lain dormant, been employed in obscure traffic. Cordiality being thus blished in that quarter, the claim of the Protestants for a trade was accompanied by all the weight of an united na- . The members of the Irish parliament, hitherto the mere nts of the British government, were overawed, and com- ed for once to discharge their duty; and they were induced eclare, in an address to the King, that nothing but a free e could save Ireland from ruin. In consequence of this ded language, Lord North found it necessary to pass an act January 1780.) repealing the prohibition of the export of l and glass from Ireland, and allowing a trade between

Ireland and our trans-atlantic colonies. In the next session, a farther act was passed, permitting the Catholic clergy of all ranks to reside in Ireland, enabling Catholics to buy land, and abrogating a number of ridiculous and offensive restrictions. Here it must be remarked how unwise it was in our ancestors to banish the superior clergy of the Catholic persuasion from Ireland; thus depriving themselves of the men who, by rank and education, were fitted to form a point of contact between government and the mass of the population. The happy consequences of their recall have become obvious in the improved education of their priests and curates, and in the exemplary conduct of their flocks. So far from wishing to keep the lower orders in ignorance, the Catholic clergy, it is evident by the number of their schools, are making great exertions to disseminate information among them; and their labours appear to be amply repaid, since Mr. Newenham brings forwards several striking examples in support of the high character for morality which he ascribes to the Catholic body at large. The populous city of Cork, where the Catholics are to the Protestants in the proportion of seven to two, is remarkably free (he says) from the commission of crimes; a regular police being unnecessary, and several assizes having passed without a capital conviction. Waterford, where the Catholics are still more numerous, is noted for supplying the judges with gold fringed gloves. Should the prelates, says Mr. Newenham, ever be admitted into the complete confidence of government, and receive such an addition to their revenue as may enable them to associate with the higher orders, the most salutary effects are to be expected from their influence.

To return to the volunteers.—The spirit of freedom, once kindled, shewed itself more and more throughout the island. Early in 1782, the delegates of not fewer than 143 corps of volunteers assembled at Dungannon in Ulster, and passed resolutions declaring that their parliament was independent of that of Great Britain, and constituted, together with the King, the sole legislative authority for Ireland; as also that the harbours of Ireland were by right open to the ships of all foreign countries with which we were not at war. So greatly had religious antipathy subsided, that a body of volunteers composed of Catholics and Protestants indiscriminately, but chiefly of the former, was organized in Dublin, with the denomination of the Irish brigade. It was under these circumstances that Mr. Grattan moved, in the Irish parliament, an address to the King declarative of their legislative independence; and though at first he was out-numbered in votes, the change of ministry in England, by the retreat of Lord North and the appointment of the

Marquis of Rockingham, had the effect of procuring speedy success for the measure. The royal assent was given to it, and for a time all went on favourably for Ireland: but the death of the Marquis of Rockingham, the subsequent alteration of ministry, and above all the security afforded to England by the conclusion of a general peace, enabled our court to impose a limit on farther concessions. Inducements were offered to the volunteer-officers to accept commands in fencible regiments, and place themselves under the controul of government: — but the accession of Roman Catholics supplying the chasms in the volunteer-ranks, recourse was had to a variety of other expedients, in order to restrain the farther progress of Irish ardour:

'In some instances, national pride was gratified: in a variety of others, either the pride, the ambition, or the avarice of individuals. Institutions, pregnant in several cases with much public benefit, and more or less calculated to extend the patronage of government, were successively devised or supported; and a spirit of industry and enterprise was liberally encouraged. The order of St. Patrick was instituted, in 1783, with much pomp and ceremony. The national bank of Ireland was opened, in the same year, with a capital of one million and a half. The general post-office was established in the following year. New places were created. The pension-list was swelled. Many were gratified by titles. The Duke of Rutland's conviviality and conciliatory manners were productive of no inconsiderable effect in diverting the higher orders from political speculations. Dublin was improved and embellished: several magnificent public structures being undertaken, or carried on with increased spirit. The custom-house, the building whereof was begun in 1781, and which was opened in 1791, had cost no less than 262,381l. 19s. 7½d. in 13 years ended in 1794. The fisheries were promoted by liberal aid and bounties. The premiums on fishing busses granted in 6 years, ended in 1786, amounted to 116,289l. 3s. 4d. Inland navigation, that eminently valuable national improvement, was prosecuted with unusual ardour and skill, private interests being prudently combined much more closely with public interest than before.—

'The bounties on manufactures from the year 1783 to 1789 inclusive, amounted to 115,000l. The sums granted in aid of manufactures, charities, and public works, in four years ended in 1788, amounted to 290,057l., besides the annual grants to the trustees of the linen manufacture, which were greater than before, and to the Dublin society, &c. In three years, ended in 1786, there passed 185 acts; which was 4 more than had passed in 22 years ended in 1725.

'The money profusely granted, at this period, was certainly not then misapplied and jobbed away in so scandalous a manner as was the case about 1755, but there was, in most instances of expenditure, a shameful want of due economy: in many, an evident want of honesty. Incapable persons appear to have been frequently employed, through the influence of those whom government felt a disposition to gratify. And the practices of defaulters and peculators seem to been, for the most part, designedly overlooked. That Ireland is again suffered to be as notorious as ever for infamous and outrageous jobbing, the writer apprehends there would be found ample ground for believing, if the expenditure of public money, in every department were narrowly investigated.'

Of the different acts passed in the Session of 1783-4, that which led to the most remarkable consequences was the grant of bounties on the exportation of corn from Ireland. The food of the common people consisting greatly in potatoes, and Ireland being so much indented by the sea as to possess almost unparalleled facilities for export, the operation of the act was speedy and extensive. The payment of 60,000l., a year to corn-merchants, in the shape of bounties, produced forthwith an annual export to the value of 400,000l., a sum which strikes the imagination of many politicians, and among others of Mr. Newenham, as so much clear gain to Ireland. He has written an elaborate chapter in opposition to Dr. Smith's reasoning on the subject of bounties; and though we can by no mean concur in applauding the policy of this measure, we deem it intitled to serious attention, on account of the magnitude of its consequences. It has given a rapid extension to the tillage of Ireland, and has greatly enhanced the rate of labour as well as the rent of land.—In adverting to Mr. Foster's habitual opposition to Catholic claims, Mr. Newenham declares (p. 238.) that Mr. F. could in no other way have served that body so effectually as by this act, of which, it seems, he was the author. The oppression of former ages, having driven the Catholics from the towns, made them bear an extraordinary proportion in the rural population. Throughout many parishes, in the greatest tillage-counties of Ireland, scarcely a Protestant is to be found; and although the augmentation of linen-exports has gone on during the last thirty years with great rapidity, the effect of extended agriculture in augmenting population leads to a conclusion, supported by other considerations, that the ratio of increase in that respect is greater on the side of the Catholics.

[*To be concluded in our next Number.*]

Art. III. Weber's *Edition of* Ford's *Dramatic Works.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 254.]

The instances of obvious corrections which have been overlooked by Mr. Weber, and of passages most imperiously calling for revisal which he has left unquestioned, are too numerous to be pointed out in a Review. We shall remark only a few which we corrected for ourselves *en passant.*

Lover's Melancholy;—concluding couplet, Act the second,

"*Ameth*: Sweet maid, forget me not! We now must part.
Cleoph: Still you shall have my prayer.
Ameth; ———————— Still you my *truth*."

As every other Act concludes with a rhyme, it may very safely be asserted that *truth* should be *heart*.

The Broken Heart, Act 4. sc. 3.

"But must Calantha quail to that young Grape?"

Mr. Weber, while he very kindly informs us, what every body knows, that to *quail* means to *sink*, to *faint*, &c. overlooks altogether the exquisite nonsense of the line in which this word occurs, and which, by the mere addition of a letter and a comma, becomes perfectly intelligible:

"But must Calantha quail *too*, that young Grape?"

alluding to the Oracle by which Calantha is typified under the symbol of a grape.

The Lady's Trial, Act 2. sc. 1.

"*Fut*; As soon as said; *in* all the clothes thou hast,
More than that walking wardrobe on thy back."

This nonsense is easily corrected by substituting *is*, for *in*, and a note of interrogation for the period. *Is* for *are* is a very common and probable inaccuracy.

Same play, Act 5. sc. 1.

"A soldier is in peace a mockery, a very town-bull for laughter; unthrifts, and landed babies, are prey—curmudgeons, lay their baits for." That is, says Mr. Weber, who lay their baits for them, (the soldiers.) 'This,' he adds, 'is the only sense I can extract from this passage, which is very inaccurately worded.' It is much more difficult, however, to extract sense from a commentator's brains than from such a passage as this, which requires nothing more than the simple process of a new punctuation to render it perfectly intelligible. "A soldier is in peace a mockery, a very town-bull for laughter. Unthrifts and landed babies are prey, curmudgeons lay their baits for:" that is, extravagant and foolish young people of property are the prey which avaricious usurers seek to ensnare.

In the next scene, we have the following piece of nonsense, which requires nothing but the same operation to reduce it into order:

"Sure state and ceremony!
In habit here like strangers, we shall wait,
Formality of entertainment:"

for

read ———— "Sure, state and ceremony
t here like strangers. We shall wait (perhaps, *waiter*,
lity of entertainment."

er's *illustrations*, scanty as they are, have been almost
rowed from the notes to the admirable Variorum
Shakspeare. His own historical and antiquarian
ppear to have been nearly confined to that source;
t easy to conceive a more unfair as well as more
ry mode of editing an antient author; though it holds
eat recommendation to the editor; viz. that it is
and easy.

ld not have dwelt so long on Mr. Weber's inca-
e office which he has assumed, if the mischief of it
to be confined to the present publication. In that
atisfaction in receiving, on *any* terms, an entire col-
he works of Ford would, to a certain extent, have
ur inclination to chastise the ignorance and idleness
r; we should probably have contented ourselves
king that our obligation to Mr. Weber would have
erably greater, had he confined himself to a simple
n of the originals, cleared only of such faults as
us and indisputable blunders of the printer; and we
waited patiently till some abler editor should arise,

must, however, pray for a perpetual injunction from the court of Parnassus to restrain him from interfering with the works of any antient author who has ever met with an editor, whether that editor be Steevens or Monck Mason.

We have left ourselves much less space than we originally intended, for any observations on the author of these plays, and on the poetical merit of his works: but few readers will require any recommendation from us, to induce them to become acquainted with a poet who, in the young and vigorous age of the English drama, was deemed equal to any and superior to most of his contemporaries; and the beauties of whose compositions, wherever they occur, (and they are by no means rare,) can scarcely, even in these days of strict criticism, be estimated too highly, except when they meet with a panegyrist so indiscreet as to make a comparison between them and those of Shakspeare.

Ford was born of respectable parents, and was baptized at Ilsington * in Devonshire, on the 17th of April 1586. In 1602, he

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* The following passage in Risdon's Survey of Devon has not been noticed by Mr. Weber: "The barton of Bagtor (in the parish of Ilsington) was anciently owned by Augerius: afterwards it became the inheritance of the name of Bere; at length, it was purchased by *John Ford,* who left it for a seat unto his posterity." p. 135. Edn. 1811. Risdon was contemporary with this dramatic author. The *John Ford* here mentioned was therefore in all probability one of his ancestors; and, when Risdon wrote, this seat of Bagtor still continued in his family. The editors of Risdon have given us no intimation of the subsequent changes in the possession of the estate. Prince, in his *Worthies of Devon,* throws somewhat more light on this subject. In his article of "Sir Henry Ford, knight, twice principal Secretary of State to King Charles II. in the kingdom of Ireland," he says that the family was of great antiquity in that county, and spread into several branches; and he supposes the subject of his memoir to have been "descended from a younger branch" of a family of this name seated at Moreton Hamstead from the time of Henry the Second, "which (says he) sprang out of it many generations back, and settled first at Chagford, then at Ashburton, and then *at Ilsington,* all in this county." He then proceeds to give the pedigree of this branch, beginning from John Ford of Chagford, from whom another John Ford of Ashburton was fourth in descent. The John Ford last mentioned was four times married. By his third wife he had George Ford of Ilsington; and, by his fourth wife, a younger son named John. George Ford of Ilsington had issue Thomas *and others;* Thomas was the father of another John Ford of Bagtor; and the last mentioned John Ford, by marriage with the heiress of Drake of Spratshays, had issue Sir Henry, the subject of the article. Now, though it seems impossible to point out with exactness the situation of

he was entered of the Middle Temple, and appears to hav practised the law during the remainder of his life, not unsuccessfully, although he did not so devote himself to its severe duties as to lose the relish, or even to deny himself the leisur for those fascinating studies which alone have handed dow his name to posterity. His first written and first acted pla was *'Tis Pity She's a Whore*, which, however, was not published till four years after the appearance of *The Lover's M lancholy* in 1629. Mr. Weber has discovered that it must hav been produced previously to the year 1623. *The Lady's Tria* which seems to have been the last of his compositions, wa first acted at the Cockpit Theatre in May 1638. The piec which he is known to have brought on the stage between t first and the last of these periods are thirteen in number; nin of which have been preserved, and are republished in the pr sent edition. The remaining four were destroyed in MS. b a servant of Mr. Warburton; whose shameful carelessness, i leaving these and other valuable treasures of antiquity in suc bad hands, has been sufficiently reprobated by Mr. Gifford i his edition of Massinger. The list of Ford's plays (both th living and the dead,) is as follows: 1. *'Tis Pity She's a Whor* 2. *The Witch of Edmonton*, (written conjointly with Rowle Dekkar, and others,) both tragedies. 3. *The Sun's Darling*, masque, (with Dekkar). 4. *The Lover's Melancholy*, a trag comedy. 5. *The Broken Heart*, a tragedy. 6. *Love's Sacr fice*, a tragedy. 7. *Perkin Warbeck*, an historical traged 8. *The Fancies Chaste and Noble*, a comedy. 9. *The Lady Trial*, a tragi-comedy. These are all preserved, and are her placed in chronological order, which (for what reason w know not) has not been observed in the publication. Th titles of the lost pieces are, 10. *Beauty in a Trance*, a traged 11. *The London Merchant*. 12. *The Royal Combat*. 13. *A Ill Beginning has a Good End*,—all comedies.

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of our dramatic author, in the foregoing pedigree, we need n doubt that he is in some way connected with it. To suppose him t be the younger son of John Ford of Ashburton, by his fourth wif would probably be throwing him too far back: but it appears to highly probable that he was one of the younger children of Georg Ford of Ilsingson, and brother to Thomas of Bagtor. Prince tak particular notice of three *Divines* of this family, besides the state man who is the main subject of his panegyric: but a *play-wrig* was (of course) far beneath his attention. At present, (so ha times and opinions altered) the birth and parentage of *the Sinner* a subjects of general curiosity; while nobody living cares whether *t Saints* had any genealogy.

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The first of these plays is so well known to all whose curiosity has ever tempted them to look into the collection published by Dodsley, (in other words, to all lovers of the antient Drama,) that it is unnecessary to make any particular observations on it in this place. 'The vivid glow of passion, with which the incestuous intercourse of Giovanni and Annabella is delineated,' (see Introd. p. xi.) has been justly remarked by Mr. Weber as well as other critics, and is equally deserving of poetical admiration and moral censure: — but the natural and consistent discrimination of character, so rarely to be found among the old dramatists, except in Shakspeare, does not appear to have been so well understood, at least by the present editor; who, to one of the best imagined and most judicious scenes in the whole play, — that which passes between Soranzo and his wife after the discovery of the imposition which she had practised on him, — subjoins only this cold and spiritless remark: 'The wicked assurance of Annabella is *very properly* introduced, *though perhaps not with such a design*, to erase the pity we had felt for her at first, when her perfections were painted in such strong colours.' Most certainly, Ford had no other '*design*' than that (in which he has fully succeeded) of painting a mind naturally good and noble, but rendered corrupt by the long indulgence of a criminal passion, out-braving the vehemence of angry reproof and cruel treatment by an affected and overstrained assurance, but subdued in an instant and touched with the acutest sense of guilt by the change from furious vehemence to gentleness and mildness. The revolting coarseness of the dialogue is another consideration, and the fault rather of the age than of the author. It may, however, be observed that the effect of contrast is heightened by it.

The tragedy of *The Broken Heart*, notwithstanding its numerous absurdities, is that which, on the whole, we are inclined to rank the highest of all its author's productions: but it is quite in the common-place cant of editorship to say (as Mr. Weber asserts in his concluding note) that 'the merit of the tragedy is such that no encomium on it can be too high.' The 'affectation of originality,' which (in another place, Introd. p. xlvi.) has been very properly remarked as a prominent defect in Ford's writings, and which in almost every play is carried to a most ridiculous extent, is productive of more monstrous effects in *The Broken Heart* than in any; and we do not confine this observation to the detestable machinery of the trap-chair, or the disgusting operation of bleeding Orgilus to death. The very scene which Mr. Lambe has selected, in his "Specimens of Dramatic Authors," as the object of an eulogium which outrages common sense as much as common decency *, affords perhaps a stronger instance of high poetical talent applied to the most wanton violation of nature and probability, than the whole circle of our antient drama can any where else produce. With these exceptions, however, the play appears to us the most interesting in its fable, the best conducted, and the most free from gross buffoonery and unnatural contradictions; and, if it were possible to moderate the extravagance of Calantha's heroism, and reduce her from a mere monster of the imagination to the level of an exalted human character, a Portia, a Jane de Montfort, or a Katherine Gordon, it would present the most forcible claim to the honours of a revival, of any in the whole collection.

Next in merit, we feel ourselves inclined to place '*Love's Sacrifice*;' the absurdities of which,—for great absurdities exist in this play also,—are (with the exception of that most disgusting scene of the murder of Ferentes) pardonable on account of their striking conformity to the costume of chivalry. The amour of Fernando and Bianca, inconsistent as it is with our purer principles, is such as the *Courts of Love* would not only have sanctioned but extolled. In the days of the Troubadours and Minstrels, no "Prud homme" or "gente Demoiselle" would have been allowed to question the strict propriety, honour, and virtue, of such a connection, any more than the injustice and cruelty of the jealous husband who could have set his face against it. The morality of the present age, however, would scarcely suffer the reproduction of this play at our theatres.

In the middle of the last century, an attempt was made to revive two of Ford's dramas; one of which, (*Perkin Warbeck*) though the subject of it is such as to preclude the author from the high praises of original invention and fancy, is so admirably conducted, so adorned with poetic sentiment and expression, so full of fine discrimination of character and affecting incidents, that we cannot help regarding that audience as greatly disgraced which, having once witnessed its representation, did not ensure its perpetuity on the English stage. If any play in the language can induce us to admit the lawfulness of a comparison with Shakspeare, it is this. Lady Katherine Gordon, Warbeck, and Huntly, are characters not only admirably preserved throughout, but such as interest all the generous and virtuous affections of our nature in the strongest manner possible. The *Pretender* himself reminds us, in some passages of his changeful fortunes, of Shakspeare's Richard the Second: but the ardour of his affection for Katherine gives him a much nearer place in the heart of the reader; and the constancy and magnanimity with which he meets the ignominies that preceded his death, as well as that last awful completion of his fate, elevate him to a height of grandeur which the desperate but sudden valour of Richard in his last moments is far from meriting. *Dalyell*, though faintly sketched in comparison with the former characters, is a personage of no common interest. The discovery of Stanley's treason, and his execution, are passages of great merit; notwithstanding the resemblance which cannot but strike the reader, between them and the scenes of the Earl of Cambridge in Henry the Fifth and Buckingham in Henry the Eighth; and the character of the King himself is drawn from the life, with a masterly precision and truth of historical delineation which deserve to be highly extolled. One of the most remarkable circumstances attending the play is, that, on reading it, we can scarcely help imagining that the author was secretly persuaded of the justice of Warbeck's pretensions. His character, from first to last, is that which would have become the real Duke of York: — not a moment of weakness or despondency occurs, in which, *even to himself*, he acknowleges the guilt of imposture. On the other hand, Henry is (at least in all his conduct towards this unfortunate young man) nothing but the cold, wary, and relentless tyrant, for whom the most devoted loyalist can feel no attachment, and from whom every ardent or independent spirit must turn with disgust and hatred. This singularity is not remarked by the editor; and when we reflect that the play was *most injudiciously* brought forwards *as an antidote* to the progress of *the Pretender* in 1745, we need not wonder, perhaps, that it kept possession of the stage no longer; its tendency being to excite sentiments of any description rather than such as it was meant to produce. If this was (as we would willingly believe) the real reason of its want of success, it should be remembered that it is a reason which has long ceased to exist; and we can discover no other objection to its acquiring in the present age that popularity to which, we think, it is on many accounts justly and highly intitled.

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* "The expression of this transcendent scene almost bears me to Calvary and the Cross; and I seem to perceive some analogy between the scenical sufferings which I am here contemplating, and the real agonies of that final completion to which I dare no more than hint a reference." See *Lambe's Specimens of Dramatic Authors*, quoted by Mr. Weber, but with *some doubts* whether the observation does not 'betray an unwarrantable enthusiasm.'

In the year 1748, Macklin brought out *The Lover's Melancholy* at Drury-lane: but he appears to have received no greater

ncouragement than the revivers of *Perkin Warbeck,*
, for the purpose of ensuring the good will of the
e resorted to the unworthy practice of a literary for-
s behalf: for as such (notwithstanding the arguments
teevens to persuade us of its genuineness) we cannot
nent doubt that his pretended pamphlet, and the whole
t of the dispute between Ben Jonson and Ford, must
tized. We have no room to enlarge at present on the
istory of this business, which Mr. Weber has insert-
Introduction; nor on the merits of the controversy
Malone and Steevens, to which it gave birth: we
refore, merely say that, were nothing else in the case
song ascribed to Endymion Porter, that song alone
r judgment) amply sufficient to prove that the whole
an imposture.

iece itself, which occasioned this curious business,
we think, happily selected for revival. Some pas-
very beautiful poetry, and the able delineation of dif-
grees of melancholy madness which it presents in the
s of the Prince and Meleander, are of themselves
nt to redeem the total want of probability and interest
ot, and the tame nothingness of all the other per-
The tale of the Nightingale, imitated from the pro-
Strada, has received, and justly merits, a high share

Proclaiming, as it seem'd, so bold a challenge
To the clear choristers of the woods, the birds,
That, as they flock'd about him, all stood silent,
Wond'ring at what they heard. I wonder'd too.
' *Amet.* And so do I; good, on!
' *Men.* A nightingale,
Nature's best skill'd musician, undertakes
The challenge, and for ev'ry several strain
The well shap'd youth could touch, she sung her down;
He could not run division with more art
Upon his quaking instrument than she,
The nightingale, did with her various notes
Reply to. For a voice, and for a sound,
Amethus, 'tis much easier to believe
That such they were, than hope to hear again.
' *Amet.* How did the rivals part?
' *Men.* You term them rightly,
For they were rivals, and their mistress harmony.
Some time thus spent, the young man grew at last
Into a pretty anger, that a bird
Whom art had never taught cliffs, moods, or notes,
Should vie with him for mastery, whose study
Had busied many hours to perfect practice:
To end the controversy, in a rapture
Upon his instrument he plays so swiftly,
So many voluntaries, and so quick,
That there was curiosity and cunning,
Concord in discord, lines of diff'ring method
Meeting in one full centre of delight.
' *Amet.* Now for the bird.
' *Men.* The bird, ordain'd to be
Music's first martyr, strove to imitate
These several sounds: which, when her warbling throat
Fail'd in, for grief, down dropp'd she on his lute,
And brake her heart. It was the quaintest sadness,
To see the conqueror upon her hearse,
To weep a funeral elegy of tears;
That, trust me, my Amethus, I could chide
Mine own unmanly weakness, that made me
A fellow-mourner with him.
' *Amet.* I believe thee.
' *Men.* He look'd upon the trophies of his art,
Then sigh'd, then wip'd his eyes, then sigh'd and cry'd:
" Alas, poor creature! I will soon revenge
This cruelty upon the author of it;
Henceforth this lute, guilty of innocent blood,
Shall never more betray a harmless peace
To an untimely end:" and in that sorrow,
As he was pashing it against a tree,
I suddenly stept in.'

Of the remaining plays, much less deserves to be said than of either of those which we have already mentioned. That of *The Fancies* is insipid in character, and absurd in plot. *The Lady's Trial* is very deficient in interest, though the reader is at times inclined to expect much more from it than it is the author's intention to afford him. The taste of the present age can never endure the barbarous and unnatural plot of *The Witch of Edmonton*; and therefore the merits of some affecting and beautifully written scenes will be for ever lost to the generality of readers. *The Sun's Darling* is a masque, and, like most allegorical compositions, is intolerably fatiguing and heavy. It contains, however, some very fine poetical passages, as the ensuing animated descriptions of the beauties of the Spring may testify:

> '*Spring*. Welcome the mother of the year, the Spring:
> That mother, on whose back Age ne'er can sit,
> For Age still waits upon her; that Spring, the nurse
> Whose milk the Summer sucks, and is made wanton;
> Physician to the sick, strength to the sound;
> By whom all things above and under-ground
> Are quicken'd with new heat.'—
> 'Oh, my dear love the Spring, I am cheated of thee!
> Thou had'st a body, the four elements
> Dwelt never in a fairer; a mind, princely;
> Thy language, like thy singers, musical.
> How cool wert thou in anger; in thy diet,
> How temperate and yet sumptuous! Thou would'st not waste
> The weight of a sad violet in excess:
> Yet still thy board had dishes numberless.
> Dumb beasts even loved thee; once a young lark
> Sat on thy hand, and gazing on thine eyes,
> Mounted and sung, thinking them moving skies.'

We have already extended our observations to a greater length than was, perhaps, strictly prudent, considering that the subject of them is not an original work. Nevertheless, we cannot refuse ourselves the satisfaction of making one extrac from the concluding scene of *Perkin Warbeck*; a play of whic we must indulge the hope of some day witnessing the representation on the boards of Covent Garden Theatre: believin as we do, that even the *Hippomania* of the last season has n wholly incapacitated the public from relishing the efforts *human* performers, and that it is still in the power of manage and proprietors to preserve the taste of the town from corruption, if they will only determine to attempt it.

We shall preface the scene which we are now to present our readers with observing merely that Warbeck has be

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ready undergoing all the studied insults of the tyrant's vengeance, with an inflexible spirit, when his wife (in spite of the entreaties of her attendants) forces her way into his presence:

“ *Enter* KATHERINE, JANE, DALYELL, *and* OXFORD.
“ *Jane.* Dear lady!
“ *Oxf.* Whither will you?
Without respect of shame?
“ *Kath.* Forbear me, sir,
And trouble not the current of my duty!—
Oh my lov'd lord! can any scorn be yours
In which I have no interest? Some kind hand
Lend me assistance, that I may partake
Th' infliction of this penance. My life's dearest,
Forgive me: I have staid too long from tend'ring
Attendance on reproach; yet bid me welcome.
“ *War.* Great miracle of constancy! my miseries
Were never bankrupt of their confidence
In worst of afflictions, till, this now, I feel them.
Report, and thy deserts, thou best of creatures,
Might to eternity have stood a pattern
For every virtuous wife, without this conquest.
Thou hast outdone belief; yet may their ruin
In after marriages, be never pitied,
To whom thy story shall appear a fable.
Why would's thou prove so much unkind to greatness,
To glorify thy vows by such a servitude?
I cannot weep; but trust me, dear, my heart
Is liberal of passion. Harry Richmond?
A woman's faith hath robb'd thy fame of triumph.
“ *Oxf.* Sirrah, leave off your juggling, and tie up
The devil that ranges in your tongue.
“ *Urs.* Thus witches
Possess'd, even their deaths deluded, say,
They have been wolves and dogs, and sail'd in egg-shells
Over the sea, and rode on fiery dragons;
Pass'd in the air more than a thousand miles,
All in a night: the enemy of mankind
Is powerful but false; and falsehood confident.
“ *Oxf.* Remember, lady, who you are. Come from
That impudent impostor!
“ *Kath.* You abuse us:
For when the holy churchman join'd our hands,
Our vows were real then; the ceremony
Was not in apparition, but in act.
Be what these people term thee, I am certain
Thou art my husband: no divorce in heaven
Has been sued out between us; 'tis injustice
For any earthly power to divide us.
Or we will live, or let us die together.
There is a cruel mercy.

“ *War*. 'Spite of tyranny
We reign in our affections, blessed woman!
Read in my destiny the wrack of honour;
Point out, in my contempt of death, to memory,
Some miserable happiness: since, herein,
Even when I fell, I stood enthron'd a monarch
Of one chaste wife's troth, pure, and uncorrupted.
Fair angel of perfection, immortality
Shall raise thy name up to an adoration;
Court every rich opinion of true merit,
And saint it in the kalendar of virtue;
When I am turn'd into the self-same dust
Of which I was first form'd.
“ *Oxf*. The lord ambassador,
Huntley, your father, madam, should he look on
Your strange subjection, in a gaze so public,
Would blush on your behalf, and wish his country
Unleft, for entertainment to such sorrow.
“ *Kath*. Why art thou angry, Oxford? I must be
More peremptory in my duty.—Sir,
Impute it not unto immodesty,
That I presume to press you to a legacy,
Before we part for ever!
“ *War*. Let it be then
My heart, the rich remains of all my fortunes.
“ *Kath*. Confirm it with a kiss, pray!
“ *War*. Oh? with that
I wish to breathe my last: upon thy lips,
Those equal twins of comeliness, I seal
The testament of honourable vows:
Whoever be that man that shall unkiss
This sacred print next, may he prove more thrifty
In this world's just applause, not more desertful.
“ *Kath*. By this sweet pledge of both our souls, I swear
To die a faithful widow to thy bed:
Not to be forced or won: oh, never, never!
“ *Enter* SURREY, DAWBENLEY, HUNTLEY, *and* CRAWFORD.
“ *Daw*. Free the condemned person; quickly free him!
What, has he yet confess'd?
[WARBECK *is taken out of the stocks*.
“ *Urs*. Nothing to purpose;
But still he will be king.
“ *Sur*. Prepare your journey
To a new kingdom then. — Unhappy madam,
Wilfully foolish!—See, my lord ambassador,
Your lady daughter will not leave the counterfeit
In this disgrace of fate.
“ *Hunt*. I never 'pointed
Thy marriage, girl; but yet, being married,
Enjoy thy duty to a husband freely:
Thy griefs are mine; I glory in thy constancy:

And

d must not say I wish that I had miss'd
ne partage in these trials of a patience.
" *Kath.* You will forgive me, noble sir.
" *Hunt.* Yes, yes:
every duty of a wife and daughter,
dare not disavow thee.—To your husband,
For such you are, sir) I impart a farewell
f manly pity; what your life has past through,
he dangers of your end will make apparent;
nd I can add, for comfort to your sufferance,
o cordial, but the wonder of your frailty,
hich keeps so firm a station.—We are parted.
" *War.* We wear a crown of peace. Renew thy age
ost honourable Huntley. Worthy Crawford,
e may embrace. I never thought thee injury.
" *Craw.* Nor was I ever guilty of neglect
hich might procure such thought. I take my leave, sir.
" *War.* To you, lord Dalyell,—what? accept a sigh,
is hearty and in earnest.
" *Dal.* I want utterance,
y silence is my farewell.
" *Kath.* Oh!—oh!—
" *Jane.* Sweet madam,
hat do you mean? My lord, your hand.
" *Dal.* Dear lady,
e pleased that I may wait you to your lodgings.
[*Exeunt* DALYELL *and* JANE, *leading out Lady* KATHERINE.

Sheriff and Officers with SKETON, ASTLEY, HERON, *and* JOHN A-WATER, *with halters about their necks.*

" *Oxf.* Look ye, behold your followers, appointed
o wait on you in death!
" *War.* Why, peers of England,
e'll lead them on courageously. I read
triumph over tyranny upon
heir several foreheads. Faint not in the moment
f victory! Our ends, and Warwick's head,
nnocent Warwick's head, (for we are prologue
ut to his tragedy) conclude the wonder
f Henry's fears; and then the glorious race
f fourteen kings Plantagenets, determines
n this last issue male; Heaven be obeyed!
mpoverish time of its amazement, friends,
nd we will prove as trusty in our payments,
s prodigal to nature in our debts.
eath? pish! 'tis but a sound; a name of air;
minute's storm, or not so much; to tumble
rom bed to bed, be massacred alive
y some physicians, for a month or two,
n hope of freedom from a fever's torments,
ight stagger manhood: here, the pain is past

nsibly 'tis felt. Be men of spirit!
coward passion! so illustrious mention
blaze our names, and style us kings o'er death.
Exeunt Sheriff and Officers with the prisoners."

ve now, we trust, amply redeemed our credit with
, from some of our introductory remarks, might have
us insensible to the beauties of our antient drama;
proved, to the satisfaction of all our readers, that our
only with the undiscriminating critics who employ
s of panegyric, when speaking of "Gammer Gurton's
and "The Roaring Girl, or Moll Cutpurse," (see a
Mr. Weber, Vol. ii. pp. 471. 486.) as ought only to
l to *Macbeth*, *Lear*, and *Othello*.

A Letter to William Gifford, Esq., on the late Edition
's Plays, chiefly as relating to Ben Jonson. By Octavius
t, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Murray. 1811.

A Letter to J. P. Kemble, Esq., involving Strictures on
Edition of John Ford's Dramatic Works. 8vo. 2s.
at Cambridge, for Murray, London. 1811.

pamphlets came to our hands after we had written
receding article. The first is the production of a

velled against Ben Jonson, are also repeated by Mr. Weber; who remarks that "they *evidently* allude to the insulting ode of Ben Jonson alluded to in the second letter of Mr. Macklin." Now, if Macklin's letters were only an imposture, (which, we think, is *self-evident*) what becomes of the *evident allusion alluded to* by Mr. Weber? Such ignorant carelessness merits the severest censure. We have no reason whatever, (besides the *dictum* of Malone,) for suspecting in Shirley *any* allusion to Ben Jonson; on the contrary, Mr. Gilchrist has, in this letter, very ably supported a conjecture (which is probable, at least, to say no more of it,) that the person to whom those lines were addressed was no other than Prynne, the author of Histriomastix.

Among various instances of the gross unfitness of Mr. Weber for the office which he has assumed, the same writer notices three plays by Ford (written, it is true, in conjunction with others) of which no mention whatever is made by his commentator. These are *The Fairy Knight*, and *The Bristowe Merchant* by Ford and Dekker, and *A late Murther of the Sonne upon the Mother*, by Ford and Webster.

The second of the two pamphlets which have given occasion to the present short article we shall dismiss with less notice; because it comprizes little else than a detection of Mr. Weber in some of his innumerable errors and absurdities. Among them we discover several that we have ourselves remarked in our preceding article:—but we are tired of the subject, and shall not uselessly add to our catalogue of editorial offences by selecting any of the fresh examples which are pointed out in the letter to Mr. Kemble.

If "the Fates *will* have it so," that Mr. Weber is to become editor-general for the commencement of the nineteenth century,—if he *will* persist in giving us the *improved* Beaumont and Fletcher which we so humbly deprecate,—we have no help for it but to join with the author of this pamphlet in the hope that his late sad failure may render him a little more cautious in future. He can at least desist from converting sense into nonsense by his blunders; and, if he cannot *mend* the text of his author, he may perhaps take warning, and leave it as he finds it.

A letter to Mr. Weber, on this subject, has also appeared.

Art. VI. *Tales of the Passions; in which is attempted an Illustration of their Effects on the Human Mind: each Tale comprised in one Volume, and forming the Subject of a single Passion.* By George Moore. Tale II. *Jealousy.* 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Wilkie and Robinson. 1811.

In imitation of Miss Baillie's *Plays* illustrative of the Passions, Mr. Moore has undertaken a series of *Tales.* His "*Revenge*" was analyzed in our lviith volume, N. S. p. 262. In this new production, he maintains the same respectable level of excellence; and without climbing to the eminences of his profession, he walks much above the plain of ordinary novelists. His merit is sufficiently known to secure him an extensive attention: but for that attention to be lasting, farther acquirements perhaps are requisite.

Felix Earlvin, a gentleman of fortune in Monmouthshire, is married to the orphan daughter of an officer who had served in the West Indies. On slight provocations, he becomes intemperately jealous; and at length, on meeting his wife in a carriage with another man, he shoots her with a pistol. Happily, however, she recovers, and this paroxysm cures his jealousy. An underplot discovers that Mrs. Earlvin is daughter of a lady with whom her supposed father had eloped, and nearly allied to the West-Indian Onslow, whose presence in her carriage had excited the husband's alarm.

This fable is rendered very intricate by unintelligible relationships between subordinate personages; indeed the entire West-Indian part of the story is improbable, difficult to remember, and not essential to the catastrophe. The characters are well described, while the description remains in the author's hands, but are not well brought into play. The dialogue altogether wants variety; it has every where the same writer-like manner, the same technical formality, as if the conversations had been taken down by a newspaper-reporter. The narrative of Osmond, for instance, which is supposed to be hastily written at midnight, as a solemn death-bed confession, while he is labouring under the agony of bodily wounds and mental remorse, is as diffuse, and as full of antithesis and prettyism of style, as any other part of the book. We quote a specimen of it:

'My mother was a woman of high spirit, gay, dissipated, and extravagant. She had been educated under a system of speculation by her parents, with a view that her personal accomplishments would insure her a splendid alliance. The sums they expended to render her (as they considered) capable of such a station, reduced the comfortable income they possessed to a bare subsistence; and on the day ighter's marriage, they became pensioners on the bounty of d. I am the eldest of two children which were the fruits m. I had the misfortune, I might almost say, the curse, the professed and decided favourite of my mother. From years of my infancy to the days of my manhood, every caım, every wish of my heart, were indulged and gratified ciety that anticipated the desires they created; while my was two years younger than myself, received little ten- ittention but what was bestowed from the good-nature and ion of the servants employed to take care of her. If my aware of the cruelty and injustice of such proceedings, he ficient energy to prevent them. The extravagance of his d his fortune, while the dissipation in which she involved his health; and, by the time his children had arrived at turity, he was a poor and infirm man. My mother's pride illow her to consent that I should be brought up to any and she even resigned some of her own luxuries to support re pleasures into which I had plunged for want of employ- vices she termed follies, my daring impetuosity she called nade me a coxcomb by admiring my person, and hardened y neglecting to teach me humanity. I feel regret, and , in laying these serious accusations on her memory; but lect on the duties of a mother, on the power of her ex- the force of her precepts, I cannot but appreciate the tenderness, and (from fatal experience) feel equally con- e cruelty of her neglect. Neither the personal attractions ital accomplishments of my sister, her amiable disposition ite temper, were capable of subduing her mother's unna- thy, which evidently increased as her daughter's beauty ualities became more conspicuous, till her envy was ex- charms, and her ill-humour increased by a consciousness riority of her mind. Under these circumstances, the se- r conduct increased to so alarming a height, that her as obliged to fly to the protection of a female relative. ı was a sister of my father's, whose husband had lately situation of some consequence in the West Indies, and itten to his wife an earnest request that she would take portunity of following him to Jamaica. She had long vith regret and indignation, the miseries of her niece's he had expostulated with her brother on the injustice of but without effect; he confessed her observations were , to make the arrangements they required, would revo- family, and destroy his domestic peace. Convinced that d no prospect of redress from her father, she proposed ould accompany her to the West Indies; an offer re- joy and gratitude by my sister, and gladly accepted by . My father's acquiescence to this proposal was per- by the increasing difficulties of his pecuniary affairs, bability such an arrangement held forth of a respect- ient for his daughter without the usual aid of a

We can applaud the elegance, but not the propriety, of this style of narration. Agitated minds are more abrupt, more concise, more simple, more strong and pathetic in their expression. It was not, however, on Mr. Osmond that the author wished to concentrate the regard of sensibility, but on Felix. Now the jealousy of the hero is so far unnatural, that it is vague in its object, and he is jealous alternately of Herbert and of Onslow. We should much have preferred to confine the alarm of jealousy to the latter, who, in the attempt to ascertain his relationship with Mrs. Earlvin, might easily give occasion for an equivocal mysteriousness; and we should have been desirous of rendering the reader suspicious as well as the husband, since otherwise the act of the latter in firing the pistol seems to the former only the degrading brutality of a madman.

ART. VII. *Sermons*, by the Rev. R. Polwhele, Vicar of Manaccan, and of St. Anthony, Cornwall. A new Volume. 8vo. pp. 401. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1810.

MONOTONY is not a rare fault among divines. One prominent subject often takes the lead in their thoughts; and whatever be the text, this must be pulled in, as the common people say, *head and shoulders*. We cannot, however, charge Mr. Polwhele's pulpit-eloquence with this defect. To the charm of variety, he adds the quality of originality; and if his novelties should not be always such as critics and sound biblical scholars will sanction, let them by way of apology for the preacher recollect that Mr. P. is a poet as well as a theologian. When, in the first volume of our new series, p. 303, we noticed a former collection of his discourses, we observed that they were executed with different success; and we can make the same report of those which are now before us. From the article just quoted, it should seem that this *new volume* does not consist of *entirely new* matter; since the discourses on *the dispersion of the Jews*, on the *character and state of the Arabs*, and on the *duties of the Husbandman*, are there mentioned, and probably they are here re-published with some slight improvements. As a member of the state, Mr. P. is very loyal; as a member of the church, he is truly orthodox; and as a clergyman, he wishes zealously to discharge the duties of his office. Some of his hearers may think that it is not very delicate in him to specify minutely in what way respect ought to be paid to the clerical character; and others, who are not and will not be his hearers, must think that he deals unfairly by them when he classes them with unbelievers. Dr. Horsley, whose illiberality was not worth copying, denominated a modern sect "Deists calling themselves Unitarians:" but this calumny will never pass current for argument; on the contrary it is bad policy to have recourse to it; because the public will be inclined to believe that no sect would condescend to persecute or even to abuse another, if a triumph over it could be obtained in the field of reason and sound logic. We give this hint to prevent all parties from *calling names*, when they ought to employ persuasion. The age is awake to this stale trick; it recoils on those who use it; and the party abused glory in it as a demonstration of their strength and importance.

Let us now attend Mr. P. through the leading subjects of his volume. On the first, intitled *Augustus Cæsar and the Wise Men*, the doctrine of which is that Augustus Cæsar was an instrument in the hand of Providence for ushering in "the rince of Peace," we make no remark: but we must observe lative to the second, on *The Unknown God*, that the preacher orts 'a lucubration,' a mere "Midsummer Night's Dream," to s Cornish hearers, in the place of authentic Scripture-truth; ice he tells them that 'Socrates, the Grecian sage, before he ffered, erected *the very altar noticed by St. Paul*;' he should ve added, in order to interest them in the fiction, that this ar was afterward brought into Britain, and is noticed by Dr. rlase in his Antiquities of Cornwall! Equally hypothetical is e suggestion in the 4th sermon, that Joseph of Arimathea is e same person with the young rich man in the Gospel who me to Christ.—The sermons which profess to exhibit incidental proofs of our Saviour's Divinity do not sufficiently discriminate between proofs of a divine mission, and characters of Divinity: but let not Mr. P. suppose that we mean to attack his orthodoxy. His practical discourses, nevertheless, are more consonant to our taste than those which are doctrinal; and hough we cannot subscribe to all that he advances in them, we re often pleased. His manner is peculiar, and generally striking. Sermon 13th, *on the coming of Christ's Kingdom*, he gives as a specimen of what he calls his *preachment*, or of his ordinary mode of preaching; and we suppose that others also rank in his class. In another discourse, on the universality of the Christian religion, he endeavours to shew its fitness for this urpose:

> 'If we consider its doctrines as they respect the conduct, no one ill doubt of their practicability in every climate, and under every ircumstance. They interfere not with political concerns; they neiher prescribe a form nor oppose themselves to any form of governent, but enforce a general obedience to the higher powers. Whilst hey contribute to the well-being of the individual, by refining his

reason,

l improving his nature, they evidently promote the public
hey teach us not only philanthropy, but an unlimited bene-
nd, to encourage us in the exertion of it, propose the
dness as the object of our imitation. In short, "whatso-
s are true—whatsoever things are just — whatsoever things
—whatsoever things are pure—whatsoever things are lovely
ver things are of good report" — these things Christianity
to regard and to practise.'

ar he is justified in representing the idea of a Provi-
instinctive, (see sermon 14.) we shall refer to his own
ration of the subject: but we do not object to his call-
ible 'the history of a particular providence.' Mr. Pol-
ms partial to instinctive feelings: and hence, in the
on, on *the Public Worship of God*, he remarks that
instinctively the force of social worship.' Professing to
e to the exact cases of his parishioners, he penetrates
es of those who frequent as well as of those who for-
ouse of God; and the reasons for not going to church
xamined:

people of this description, and others who would resent,
e charge of wilful negligence, a very trivial accident is
gh for absence. At one time, their attendance is pre-
n a doubt, when or where the service will be performed
message to the minister would have soon removed the

tification; while folly and ignorance presume to explain texts, which wisdom and learning would deem incomprehensible, and at an awful distance revere.

'From the same motive, I once witnessed the appearance of persons at church, for the first time I believe in the course of their lives. They had habitually neglected and mis-spent the sabbath. Yet a few musical instruments led them thither: when the novelty was over they disappeared. I doubt not, such persons would shrink with horror from the idea of the exclusion of their bodies from the church after death. But I scarcely think that a clergyman would perform his duty too rigorously by shutting the church-door against the corpse of him, who in his life-time had never entered it.'

What could induce the author to print the last sentence of this extract? Would he advise clergymen to exceed their duty, and wreck their vengeance on a heretic's lifeless corpse? Had Mr. P. forgotten his sermon on *Christian prudence?*—The good church-goer is thus described:

'With respect to the church, he has no wish to have its rites or its ordinances submitted to his own convenience, but leaves all to the regulation of his spiritual guide, whom he treats not as *his* minister, but reveres as *the minister of God.*'

Particular cautions and instructions to the frequenters of public worship are given at the end of the discourse, in which this rule is laid down: 'To your minister *absolving* you from your offences, look up with reverence as to an ambassador from God.'—Fearful, however, that he had not sufficiently magnified his office by this demand of reverence during divine worship, Mr. P. hints in a note at the *decorous* behaviour of some congregations before the service: 'At the entrance of the clergyman and his family, the congregation, before decently seated, all rise, (just as in borough-towns, at the entrance of the mayor and corporation) and stand in a respectful attitude, till the minister is settled in his pew.'— After this, can Mr. Polwhele say with his divine master, "*I seek not honour from men?*" If he be not a high churchman, it is evident that he can have no objection to be *high* in the church; and if he practises the lessons which he gives to the clergy in the last two sermons of this volume, he *is intitled* to rank above most of his brethren.

Art. VIII. *The Truth and Consistency of Divine Revelation, with some Remarks on the contrary Extremes of Infidelity and Enthusiasm*, in Eight Discourses delivered before the University of Oxford, at St. Mary's, in the Year 1811, at the Lecture founded by the late Rev. John Bampton, Canon of Salisbury. By John Bidlake, D.D. of Christ Church, Oxford, &c. 8vo. pp. 250. 6s. Boards. Murray. 1811.

From the commencement of the Bampton-Lecture to the preaching of the series of discourses now offered to us, thirty-one volumes of Bamptonian sermons have issued from the press; and it may be justly presumed that the subjects specified by the founder are so far exhausted, that little novelty can be expected in future discussions. Dr. Bidlake's compositions are very fair specimens of pulpit oratory, but exhibit nothing of that prominent merit in originality or in argument which can intitle them to any detailed notice from us. He traverses ground often traversed before, and has urged nothing against either infidels or fanatics in which he has not been anticipated. This observation we do not offer as a censure on the lecturer, but as an apology for dismissing his volume with more brevity of criticism than sermons of this class have usually obtained.

Dr. B. 'proposes to shew, that the evidences of revealed religion are capable of a very high degree of demonstration; that the scheme of divine revelation is grand, comprehensive, consistent, and harmonious in its general design; agreeable to the attributes of the Deity, and to the analogies of his œconomy in his natural and moral world. In the course of this plan, occasion will be taken to answer some charges of inconsistence, which are urged against the clergy, by the two opposite characters of unbelievers and fanatics.' This is the preacher's general plan; and in the subdivision of his undertaking he first endeavours to depict the character of Infidelity: he next ingeniously vindicates the doctrine of a particular Providence, and the perpetual agency of a First Cause: hence he passes to a desultory view of the Mosaic and Christian Dispensations, erroneously observing in his account of the sacrifices under the former that 'the law of Moses required only the blood of the lamb;' (p. 89.) and in the next page he adduces 'the building of the ark as a proof that the *Jews* were not without skill in the arts.' To these discourses is subjoined a lecture on Miracles and Prophecy as striking evidences of Christianity; and then in conclusion Dr. B. inveighs against the errors of Fanaticism, and vindicates 'some of the Articles of the Established Church against the misrepresentations of mistaken zeal.' Though in his head-title to these sermons, the Doctor specifices *Enthu-*

siasm as a grand object of his attack, at p. 159. he sings the praise of Enthusiasm 'as a laudable ardour, friendly to virtue, dignified, sentimental, and generous,' contrasting it with *Fanaticism,* which is the real object of his pointed animadversions: but we very much suspect that Fanatics will not be brought to reasonable terms by being charged with gloominess and spiritual pride, any more than Infidels will be converted to the faith by being accused of arrogance and the affectation of superiority in 'assuming the solemnity of doubt.'

When Dr. B. proceeds to comment on Article xvii. on *Predestination* and *Election,* we cannot think that he is correct in saying that 'no allusion is made to any determinate number of persons.' "A choice made *out of mankind,* in the divine decrees, before the foundation of the world," must signify persons chosen; the phrase means, as far as words can mean any thing, *some taken,* and *some left.* It is very true, as the lecturer next remarks, 'that there is no mention of Reprobation,' and by this fortunate omission the Church just avoided the gloomy rock of Calvinism: but the article respecting Election is so worded, that the non-elect are removed only a hair's breadth from Reprobation; for how thin is the partition between divine dereliction and absolute reprobation, if man in his natural state be incapable of thinking or doing any good thing? It is well observed by Dr. B. that it was 'contrary to the intention of our blessed Lord, that men should enter on subtle disquisitions on the divine counsels;' and had the framers of the articles not speculated on the eternal purposes of God, they would have saved the Church much fruitless and perplexing controversy. In treating on the article respecting what is termed Original Sin, Dr. B. does not discriminate between a corruption or deterioration of nature, and the transmission of guilt: the former is agreeable to analogy, the latter is absolutely impossible. Perhaps he is indiscreet in contending so warmly for the correct wording of the Articles; since he must be sensible that, were they to be revised by the present episcopal bench, assisted by the most learned of the clergy, they would probably undergo considerable alterations for the better. Though Dr. Bidlake declaims against fanatical preachers, he seems to be ignorant of one of the chief causes of their success; otherwise he would not have dissuaded the clergy from 'extemporaneous preaching, as conducive to the degradation rather than to the improvement of the mind.' In the senate, and at the bar, what is the character of our oratory? Reading is not eloquence; and unless our clergy will practise extemporaneous preaching, or at least preaching without reading, they must submit to the mortification of seeing crowds go to Methodistic chapels.

A Treatise on the Defence of Portugal, with a Military
the Country; to which is added a Sketch of the Manners
toms of the Inhabitants, and principal Events of the Cam-
nder Lord Wellington. By William Granville Eliot,
in the Royal Regiment of Artillery. The Third Edition,
nsiderable Additions. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Egerton.

CIAL views have long conferred a degree of interest
e affairs of Portugal in the minds of Englishmen, and
united with other considerations to induce us to take
hem which brings them more and more "home to
ss and bosoms." The military operations which we
rosecuting in the Peninsula, on a scale of almost un-
magnitude in comparison with our means, must not
e the attention of the politician, but must create
almost every domestic circle: for where is the fa-
h does not count, in our numerous host now serving
ation, some relative or some friend, in whose glory
d they do not participate, whose misfortunes they do
iserate, or whose fall they do not mourn? We need
fore, employ many words, nor seek a variety of
shew that the work of Captain Eliot, of which we
lled to take notice, is likely to attract the curiosity
in general; and indeed the circumstance of its

766. The truth is that, neither in that work nor in the one which is now before us, is the absolute force or strength of Portugal ascertained, or compared with that of any other kingdom in Europe; and it does not even appear that either that General or the British officer, when composing their treatises, had the most distant conception of the proper mode of determining this point with any accuracy. Had the latter given a olerably correct statement of the absolute force of France, compared with that of Portugal, when a French army entered t in 1807, he might have rendered an essential service to his wn country, and have enabled us to judge with some degree f certainty in regard to the issue of the present contest.—aptain Eliot seems to be apprehensive that the first part of is performance will appear tedious and irksome to such of his eaders as are not military men, on account of the monotony nd sameness of the language which, for the sake of perspiuity, he has found it necessary to use in his topographical escriptions; and he cautions them against expecting from im a complete statistical or commercial view of the ountry.

The first, second, third, and fourth chapters treat on the pography of Portugal, respecting which the author is suffiently particular; and they occupy 95 pages. He allows that cannot depend on Oporto as a port for the embarkation of ops; and that, if an enemy be in possession of that town, vessels can be anchored so as to remain in security for an ortunity of sailing. He is of opinion that no attempt l be made, but in the way of a diversion, from the district th of the Douro, on the central district lying between that r and the Tagus; which he seems to consider as the only t of Portugal that is in reality capable of being defended, towards which his notions of defence are chiefly directed. observes:

> The Douro, in the rainy season, frequently rises to such a height, so suddenly, as to inundate a great part of the town of Oporto. these periods, vessels have been carried over the bar, no cable and hor being strong enough to hold them. The usual method of seing them is by a large boom, one end of which is made fast on rd the vessel, and the other to the shore. Of these booms there abundance on the wharfs. In case of an attack on Oporto, they ht be made very serviceable for barricading the streets; as they are long, about nine inches square, and if well bound with old iron ps in a serpentine form, from end to end, and likewise driven full ld nails, nothing but cannon brought up close to them would be to break down so formidable a barrier. During the rainy season, sometimes as late even as the month of June, when the freshes ocned by the melting of the snow from the mountains in Spain come down

er, a convoy will frequently wait five or six weeks for an
of getting to sea, at which time the roaring of the bar is
Oporto therefore cannot be depended upon as a port
e to embark troops, nor can vessels be anchored in any
as to enable them to wait an opportunity of sailing, should
e in possession of the town. The bar is moreover com-
the castle or fort of Saõ Joaõ, about half a league from

een thus circumstantial in the description of the forego-
es, in order to demonstrate, by pointing out its impracti-
w little an invasion of Portugal by the north is to be
ll defended. For even admitting an enemy to succeed in
self master of these provinces, which is at least extremely
al, he has still the Douro to cross, which might be ren-
o impossible, provided proper precaution was taken to
oats. It is true, others might be constructed, but that
work of time and labour, in numbers sufficient for the
ransporting an army across. It is therefore probable,
ck in this quarter would be undertaken as a diversion, in
w off a certain portion of troops from the main point,
of the provinces of Béira and Estremadura, or for the
btaining money and supplies from Oporto.

elinquishing also the defence of Algarve, and the
of the Tagus, he remarks :

y part of the province of Estremadura situated to the province of Beira and the eastern part of Estremadura remained unconquered.

'In addition to the before-mentioned places, there are numberless other ancient fortresses and walled towns, some of them situated beyond the Guadiana, at the present day of little consequence in a military point of view; and although this district may be said to be covered with them, yet it is the weakest and least defensible of any. That power which can bring into the field the greater body of cavalry, supported by a proportion of infantry, will most decidedly remain masters of it. Be that as it may, with respect to its influence on a campaign, it is not worth the time required for its subjugation. The strength of Portugal lies in the central district, well protected on either flank by the Tagus or the Douro. This important part of the country presents a front of the most rugged aspect, in the rear of which are chains of posts innumerable.'

Confining, therefore, his schemes and measures of defence to the district which lies between the Douro and the Tagus, Captain E. thus specifies the lines which he would man and occupy for that purpose:

'The best line of positions that can be taken up for the defence of the most important part of the kingdom, may be drawn from the Douro along the Serra de Estrella, commencing on the left at Lamego, passing by Momenta de Beira, Trancozo, and Celorico to Guarda, all of which are excellent stations, and the passes in their vicinities should be more or less strengthened by field works. From Guarda the line may be thrown back behind the Zezere, and extended to the Tagus, having the strong posts of Castello Branco and Abrantes in front of the right flank. An advanced line may be drawn from Castel Melhor, on the Coa, by Almeida, Castello Bom, Alfaiates, and following the frontier line to the Tagus. These corps should be composed chiefly of light troops and cavalry sufficient to keep up the communication with the main body of the army. Guarda and Viseu should be the two principal stations; Coimbra, Thomar, and Leiria, stations for bodies of reserve, and the latter a principal magazine. Peniche, situated on a small peninsula on the coast, is already fortified. Its defences might be improved, and it would afford an excellent spot for a depôt of stores and ammunition, from whence they may be conveyed in small cutters or other vessels to either flank. The isthmus, which connects Peniche with the main land, is overflowed at high-water. Santarem is a good post, and, as long as the army is in advance, a proper station for a small corps to watch the Tagus, should an enemy be in possession of Alemtejo. In addition to these, a strong position may be taken up for the defence of Lisbon, the right at Sacavem, passing by Lumiar, and the left at Alcantara. Against an enemy advancing from Leiria, the heights near Alhandra, the passes of Roliça, Bucellas, Cabeça de Montachique, and Mafra, are of importance, and form a strong line of defence farther in advance.'

Any person, however, who is acquainted with the nature of military operations, will perceive, by barely casting his eye on the map, that ten times the force of that district would hardly suffice to defend it properly against the penetration of even a small well disciplined army.

In the 6th chapter, the author tells us that twenty thousand of the Portuguese troops are payed by Great Britain; and, as a proof of their bravery, he refers us to that part of Lord Wellington's dispatch relative to the affair of Busaco, in which his Lordship mentions the circumstance of having had "a favourable opportunity of shewing the enemy the description of troops of which his army was composed," as a consolation to him under the mortification of being obliged to retreat precipitately after he found that Massena had unexpectedly turned one of his flanks.

In speaking of the customs of the Portuguese, p. 121. Capt. Eliot says that the sulphureous particles arising from the charcoal-fires, which they make in large copper-pans, occasion a constant coughing and consequent spitting; a custom to which the natives are much addicted, even females of the first rank: —but this is the first time that we ever heard of charcoal emitting *sulphureous* particles, or vapours, as pitcoal commonly does.—His account of the wonderful influence of superstition, on all descriptions of persons, is not much calculated for giving us a high opinion either of the country or its inhabitants; though their abolition of that horrible tribunal, the Inquisition, may lead to improvement and happiness:

> 'It has been for some time a subject of discussion with various authors, whether the almost uncontrouled sway maintained by the clergy over the minds, I might perhaps say, over the persons and property of the lower orders of society, has been mostly effected by the force of enlightened education and superior intellect, or by means of low cunning and superstitious infatuation. I am inclined to think that the former may have their due weight, but that the latter certainly preponderate; for when we consider the number of religious ceremonies, conducted with the utmost pomp and grandeur, handed down from generation to generation, and some of them so truly absurd, we may infer, that they themselves are equally the dupes of their own credulity. As an instance of the absurdity of some of these ceremonies, I shall mention one which I was an eye-witness to in Lisbon. For more than a week I observed a party of six stout fellows parading the streets, dressed in a kind of scarlet robe, one of whom carried an image in a little glass case, underneath which was a money-box, with a strong padlock; he was preceded by two of the party, one playing the drum, the other the bagpipes. On the left of the man with the image, was another of the party carrying a board, on which was painted a representation of the sufferings of souls in purgatory: the rear was brought up by the other two, with flags bearing some other devices, which, from their dirty and tattered state, I could not decypher. The party frequently stopped to re-

ceive the donations of the passengers, who kissed the case, crossed themselves, and dropped their alms in the box; not a shop, coffee-house, or stall, was free from their intrusion. My curiosity tempted me, the first opportunity that occurred, to inquire to what purpose the amount of this voluntary contribution was applied. The man who carried the box replied, *Para comprar paõ, para Santo Antonio, Senhor Official, da hum bocadinho pelo amor de Deos*[*].

'Of all the religious ceremonies, the procession of the Corpus Christi is the most magnificent. On this day the streets are hung with silken drapery, embroidered with gold; the monks of the different orders join the procession, bearing the silver candelabra of their convents, and at the head marches the statue of St. George on horseback, in complete armour, attended by the generals and their suite bare-headed. The military line the streets; the convents are illuminated in the evening by tar barrels and large wax tapers; a profusion of rockets are seen in the air from all parts of the town; the garrisons and shipping fire in honour of the day; and the whole is conducted with the utmost pomp and grandeur.

'The procession of the host is continually passing to and fro in the city of Lisbon: on its entrance into any of the streets, one of the ecclesiastical attendants who precedes it, tolls a hand bell which he carries for the purpose; upon this the whole of the passengers, male and female, drop on their knees, and remain in that position, crossing themselves, and repeating their Ave Maria's and Paternosters till it has passed. The inhabitants run to the balconies and windows of their houses, and perform the same ceremonies; the military guards turn out bare-headed and kneeling, with the point of the bayonet to the ground. The officers and soldiers of the British army halt and take off their hats, but do not kneel.

'The Inquisition, formerly the scourge of the land, has now lost its terrific horrors. According to the best accounts, this detestable tribunal was established during the reign of D. Joao III. about the year 1536, for the punishment of heretics. After maintaining its baneful influence and power for centuries, it received its death-blow during the administration of the Marquis de Pombal. The principal tribunal, which is at Lisbon, stands in the square of the Roscio, and is now little more than a place where the Regency meet to transact the affairs of the nation, and where they sit in judgment on political offenders. Evora and Coimbra formerly had their inquisitorial tribunals; these have also lost their power, or have ceased to exercise it.'

Chapters VIII. IX. and X., on travelling, arts and manufactures, Lisbon and its environs, are entertaining, but convey little information that is important, or that has not been already supplied. Chapter XI. refers to the emigration of the Royal family of Portugal, and the principal events which occurred before the debarkation of the British army under Sir Arthur Wellesley.

'[*] To purchase bread for Saint Antonio, Signior Officer; bestow a little for the love of God.

When mentioning the entrance of the French army in 1807, which gave rise to that emigration, the author observes that the invaders made the well known aversion of the Spaniards to the Portuguese subservient to their own views, and not only marched a part of the Spanish army into that country but placed it under the direction and controul of French Generals. That antipathy still subsists; and we fear that the time is not far distant when a similar use may be made of it: especially as the French have acquired possession of the fortresses and strong holds, that are best calculated for enabling them to command the supplies and resources of Spain, and add them to their own. They have lately, too, become masters of Saguntum and Valencia; the neighbourhood of which, to a very considerable distance, is distinguished above all the other parts of that country for its natural richness and fertility. So convinced was the great Annibal of the importance of the first of these posts, in various respects, and particularly for keeping in submission the Spaniards on the coast of the Mediterranean, that he would not set out on the invasion of Italy till he had made himself master of that town, though he was under the necessity of investing it for eight months; the Saguntines being so firm in their attachment to the Romans, that they rather chose to perish in the place than submit to the Carthaginians.

In describing the affair of Vimiera, Captain Eliot does not give any account of the effects produced by the small number of Shrapnell's spherical shells that were used on that occasion; nor attempt to explain by what unfortunate mis-management it happened that only nine rounds of that destructive species of ammunition were sent out for each gun. He finds great fault with Sir Harry Burrard for assuming the command on his arrival at the field of battle, and ordering our troops to desist from following the French after they were repulsed. He takes it for granted that the representation made by Sir Arthur Wellesley, in his letter to Lord Castlereagh, with regard to the advantages that might have been obtained if the command had remained in his own hands, is well founded, and unscrupulously adopts it as his own: but this is mere matter of opinion; and it was natural for Sir Arthur to magnify those supposed advantages. Captain Eliot tells us that our want of a sufficient body of cavalry was severely felt; the English amounting only to 200 and the Portuguese to 260; while the enemy had from twelve to fourteen hundred. Sir Harry might have regarded this body of French cavalry as well calculated for covering their retreat, which it was, and which it actually did; and he might have been apprehensive of our infantry being drawn into some ambuscade, or into ground favourable for the enemy's cavalry to act against them with

advantage

ge and effect. Indeed, it may be added, too, that the
were not in the situation of an army that was panic-
or thrown by sudden incidents into such a state of con-
as sets all tactics, order, and discipline at defiance: they
ly retreating after having made an unsuccessful attack;
ir retreat (as we have just stated) was covered by a great
ity of cavalry.

author informs us (page 211.) 'that one half of our
ere not engaged:' but he surely cannot mean to adduce
t as a proof of Sir Arthur's generalship. Every person of
y knowlege will naturally ask the question, why were
re of our troops engaged?—for an able and skilful Ge-
ill always contrive to bring the greatest part of his force
tion, let the ground, which is the theatre of it, be what
. It appears from his own account of this affair that it
ave partaken very much of the nature of a surprise: for
ressly tells us that our position was "a camp taken up
r one night," and that we were ignorant of the enemy's
on till he actually appeared and made the attack.

o the armistice, which led to the convention of Cintra, we
rely observe that it seems odd that Sir Arthur Wellesley
sign it after the command had been taken from him; be-
strictly speaking, such an act was the duty of the Com-
r in Chief. At any rate, it could not have been imposed
ty on the second in command, without his own consent.
ain Eliot states that Sir Arthur approved the conven-
and he is himself also decidedly of opinion that it was
, though he acknowleges that the French were in want
lies, and that, during the armistice, fresh troops con-
to arrive from England: circumstances which must have
d the situation of their army relatively to ours daily
and worse. Had no such convention taken place, it is
re more than probable that a few days would have
ed the unconditional surrender both of Junot's army
the Russian squadron in the Tagus.

hapter XIII. the author introduces the battle of Talavera,
it was not fought in Portugal, and gives an account of
onsiderable length. This affair, also, seems to have
n more of the nature of a repulse than a set engagement,
he French were the assailants, and, after having been
d in several attacks, retired to their own position, un-
ed; leaving a rear-guard of 10,000 men, for three days,
heights behind the Alberchi; and none of those advan-
ccrued to us from the action which usually attend a de-
ictory. Three days after that rear-guard was withdrawn,
thur Wellesley marched the British army from Talavera

on

on the road to Oropesa, in order to attack that of Marshal Soult; leaving General Cuesta with the Spaniards to protect our sick and wounded, and to cover our rear. Captain Eliot reflects on that General, for abandoning his post on the very next morning, and marching with all his army by the same route which we had taken. This step, however, on the part of Cuesta, appears to have been necessary: for it is evident from the author's own account that the enemy would probably have succeeded in penetrating our line, had it not been for the 18 pieces of cannon, which Colonel Robe brought to bear obliquely on the flank of one of their principal columns, with Colonel Shrapnell's spherical case shot; and if it was with the utmost difficulty that the whole allied army could repulse the attacks of the French, and retain possession of that position, how could it be supposed possible for Cuesta with his Spanish troops alone to do this? Yet, had he remained, he would have been exposed to Joseph Buonaparte's army in front, and to that of Soult in the rear; and the loss of all the troops entrusted to his care must have been the consequence.

Capt. E. gives the following short description of what is commonly called the battle of Busaco, and of the subsequent retreat of the allied army:

'At six in the morning of the 27th of September, the enemy made two desperate attacks on the position of the allied army, the one on the right, the other on the left, of the highest point of the Serra. The attack on the right was made by two divisions of the second corps on that part of the Serra occupied by the third division of infantry. One division of the French infantry arrived at the top of the ridge, when it was attacked by the 88th, 45th British, and 8th Portuguese regiments, directed by Major-General Picton, who commanded the third division. These corps attacked with the bayonet and drove the enemy from the advantageous ground he had gained. The other division of the second corps attacked further on the right on the road leading by Santo Antonio de Cantaro, also in front of the third division. This attack was repulsed before the enemy could reach the top of the ridge by the 74th regiment and the Portuguese brigade, commanded by Colonel Champlemond, directed by Colonel Mackinnon. Major-General Leith also moved to his left, to the support of Major-General Picton, and aided in the defeat of the enemy on this post, by the third battalion of the Royals, first and second battalions 38th regiment.

'On the left, the enemy attacked with three divisions of infantry of the sixth corps, that part of the Serra occupied by the left division, commanded by Brigadier-General R. Craufurd, and by the brigade of Portuguese infantry, commanded by Brigadier-General Pack. One division of infantry only made any progress towards the hill, and they were charged with the bayonet by the light brigade and third Portuguese caçadores under Brigadier-General R. Craufurd,

ırd, and driven down with immense loss. Brigadier-General Cole-
ıan's brigade of Portuguese infantry, which was in reserve, moved
p to support the right of Brigadier-General Craufurd's division; and
battalion of the 19th Portuguese regiment, made a gallant and suc-
essful charge upon a body of another division of the enemy, which
as endeavouring to penetrate in that quarter. Besides these attacks,
e light troops were engaged throughout the day of the 27th. The
ss of the combined army was—*British*, 5 officers, 104 men killed;
5 officers, 458 men wounded; 1 officer, 30 men missing—*Portu-
uese*, 6 officers, 84 men killed; 25 officers, 487 men wounded; 20
en missing. The loss of the enemy was reported to be enormous;
000 men were buried on the field; 1 general officer, 3 colonels, 33
fficers, 250 men taken prisoners.

'Massena, finding it impossible to force the position of Busaco,
id not renew his attack on the 28th, except by the fire of his light
oops, evidently intended to cover the march of a large body of
ıfantry and cavalry, which he had moved from the left of his centre,
nd were seen on the road leading from Mortagaō over the mountains
Oporto. Colonel Trant had been ordered to possess himself of this
oad, which turned the position of the Serra de Busaco, and to take
ost at Sardaō; but unfortunately he was sent round by Oporto by
he general officer commanding in the north, in consequence of a
mall detachment of the enemy being in possession of Saō Pedro de
al; and notwithstanding the efforts he made to arrive in time, he did
ot reach Sardaō till the night of the 28th, after the enemy was in
ossession of the ground. In consequence of this movement made by
he enemy, Lord Wellington recrossed the Mondego, and continued
o retreat to the position he had previously determined on, with his
ight at Alhandra, passing by Torres Vedras, and his left on the
ea.'

It may fairly be deduced from this account that the attack,
hich Massena directed to be made on the allied troops posted
n this Serra, was planned chiefly with a view to keep Lord
Vellington's attention engaged in that quarter; while, with
he main body of his army, Massena should turn the British
eft flank by the pass of Sardaō, which he accomplished; and
t is not unlikely that the natural impetuosity of the French
ed them to make a more serious attack than was intended; and
hus subjected them to a greater loss than was necessary.
)ur troops, as well as the Portuguese, who on that occasion
o-operated with them, displayed great steadiness and intrepi-
lity: but where was the generalship of suffering the key to our
osition to remain unoccupied, or leaving the non-occupation of
t even to a possible contingency?

From Captain E.'s account of the battle of Albuera, each
ide appears to have sustained a great and nearly an equal loss:
ut the Captain has omitted one material fact, which we have
eard stated by several officers of veracity and accuracy of
bservation, who were in the action; namely, that Marshal

Beresford

Beresford was for upwards of two hours a prisoner in the hands of the French. We are loth to suppose that this omission was intentional, because the suppression of facts in any narrative is as improper as the introduction of events that never took place. Other circumstances connected with that engagement are deserving of notice, which our limits will not permit us to specify; but we cannot avoid remarking that the greatest mistake, which the Marshal appears to have committed on that occasion, was the posting of the Spaniards in the right of his line on the height which commanded all the rest of it: because, that being the key to his position and the ground, which the enemy would naturally exert their utmost efforts to obtain, it should have been occupied by the very best and steadiest of the troops, with a strong subsidiary body at hand to support them. Had such an arrangement been made, a great effusion of blood and the loss of many brave men might have been avoided, as well as the relief of Badajos prevented.

It is with pain that we advert to the oversight committed twice, in the course of a few days, at the attack of Fort St. Christoval, by sending men to mount the breach with scaling ladders which were much too short; thus throwing away many lives unnecessarily. Could neither the commanding engineer nor any person under him ascertain the height of the escarp-wall, sufficiently near to prevent such a mistake? Were no Spaniards with the allied army, who had ever seen a section of the fort, or could tell the height of its revêtement? Captain Eliot informs us (p. 333.) that the second attempt 'failed in like manner as the first, and for the same reasons:' but he does not assign these reasons, and only touches slightly on the subject.

At the end of this narrative is added a table of Portuguese coins, weights, and measures, as also of the principal routes. As a first essay, the work is certainly far from being unworthy of praise. The author appears to possess classical information, and to have received a much better education than is common: but his language is in many places neither chaste nor correct.

ART. X. *Travels in various Countries of Europe, Asia and Africa*, by Edward Daniel Clarke, LL.D. Part the first—Russia, Tartary, and Turkey. Second Edition. 4to. pp. 800. (with Plates,) 5l. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1811.

THE situation of Russia, as an object of interest to the inquiring part of the public, is in some respects peculiar. Su-

fficiently powerful in a political point of view to excite the
ger attention of our countrymen, her interior has hitherto
en too seldom traversed by enlightened and impartial ob-
rvers, to enable persons at a distance to make up their minds
the state of society and civil government throughout her
rritory. The consequence of ignorance, in this as in other
ings, has been to magnify and over-rate. Accustomed to
ar of the terror of the Russian arms, of the splendor of the
urt and capital, and struck particularly by the gigantic figure
hich she makes on the map, the public, both here and on the
ntinent, have formed the most mighty conceptions of the
xtent of her power. Lord Grey, when in office, a few years
go, spoke in parliament of the superiority of the Russian
ecuniary resources, compared with the Austrians, as a matter
course; and Bonaparte is believed to be within bounds for
nce when he styles his brother Alexander, *par excellence*, "*le
uissant Empereur du Nord.*" Now, while we admit that
ussia, when well governed, is a very formidable empire, it is
asy to shew that she is much less potent than many among
s are apt to imagine. As far as knowlege constitutes power,
he must be pronounced to be greatly behind her rivals in the cen-
re and west of Europe; and, as she has emerged but lately from
arbarism, that efficiency in public servants which results from
ducation must be, in a great measure, wanting both in her
ivil and her military departments. No infantry in Europe is
o badly officered as the Russian; no plan of taxation is more
bsurd or pernicious; no system of expenditure is more irregular
r wasteful; no court is more misled by the influence of favou-
itism in both sexes; and none exposes itself so much to ridi-
ule by sudden transitions to the most opposite extremes. If we add to these considerations the vast impediments to exertion which result from a thinly scattered population, as well as the general apathy which is inseparable from a state of slavery, we shall have no cause to wonder that the Russian armies should be so much less numerous than those of France and Austria. In truth, when we come to enter on an examination of the grounds of the reputation of Russia, we shall find that they have consisted, in a great measure, in the ability of leading individuals, and in the peculiar character rather than in the magnitude of her force.

Aware, however, as we are of the prevalence of exaggeration with regard to this empire, we by no means incline to go, on the negative side, so great a length as the traveller whose work we are now reporting. He saw Russia at a very unfavourable epoch; and exposure to personal indignity may have contributed to add poignancy to his sarcasms. His book contains a variety of observations on other topics, such as the manners of the Cossacks, the character of the Circassians, and the condition of the Crimea, on all of which we shall, in due course, bestow attention: but, as the animadversions on the Russian character have excited a controversy between some of our countrymen who have been in the habit of censuring our political connection with Russia, and the much more numerous class who put a high value on it, we shall give to that part of the volume our earliest consideration. The counter-publication of Sir Robert Wilson shall receive a speedy notice; while a life of Prince Potemkin, also lying on our table, shall be brought forwards in the third place, and may serve as a practical commentary on the reasoning contained in the previous disquisitions.

Dr. Clarke begins his narrative by mentioning that, after having visited Sweden and Lapland in company with Mr. Cripps of Jesus College, Cambridge, whom he terms the cause and companion of his travels, he found himself at Petersburgh in the spring of 1800. This was the unfortunate period at which Paul, flying, like a true barbarian, from one extreme to another, had subjected our countrymen in Russia to repeated indignities. His madness and malevolence diffused a general gloom over the metropolis, and it seemed as if half the nobles in the empire were to be exiled to Siberia. In regard to dress, the most ridiculous observances were prescribed, and enforced with inflexible rigour. Such was the tyranny and caprice of this despot, that, in the course of the few years of his reign, 30,000 persons were put out of the public service; 18,000 having been dismissed by order, while 12,000 had voluntarily resigned. We cannot wonder that Dr. Clarke and his companion were impatient to withdraw from such scenes, and adopted with alacrity the advice of our ambassador Lord Whitworth to retire to Moscow. Their journey was performed in the early part of April; and the travellers had barely time to bring it to a close when the thaw, which occurs regularly in the second week of that month, made the roads nearly impassable.

> 'Setting out,' says Dr. Clarke, 'from Petersburg for the south of Russia, the traveller bids adieu to all thoughts of inns, or even houses with the common necessaries of bread and water. He will not even find clean straw, if he should speculate upon the chance of a bed. Every thing he may want must therefore be taken with him. A pewter tea-pot will prove of more importance than a chest of plate. To this he will add, a kettle, a saucepan, the top of which may be used for a dish, tea, sugar, and a large cheese, with several loaves of bread made into rusks, and as much fresh bread as he thinks will keep till he has a

chance of procuring more. Then, while the frost continues, he may carry frozen food, such as game, or fish, which, being congealed, and as hard as flint, may jolt about among his kettles in the well of the carriage without any chance of injury. Wine may be used in a cold country; but never in a hot, or even in a temperate climate, while upon the road. In hot countries, if a cask of good vinegar can be procured, the traveller will often bless the means by which it was obtained. When, with a parched tongue, a dry and feverish skin, they bring him bad or good water to assuage his burning thirst, the addition of a little vinegar will make the draught delicious. Care must be taken not to use it to excess, for it is sometimes so tempting a remedy against somnolency, that it is hardly possible to resist using the vinegar without any mixture of water.'—

'I do not know what first gave rise to a notion, very prevalent, that the road from Petersburg to Moscow is a straight line through forests, except that it was the intention of Peter the Great to have it so made. The country is generally open, a wide and fearful prospect of hopeless sterility, where the fir and the dwarf birch, which cover even Arctic regions, scarcely find existence. The soil is for the most part sandy, and apparently of a nature to set agriculture at defiance. Towards the latter part of the journey, corn-fields appeared, of considerable extent.

'The male peasants of Russia are universally habited, in winter, in a jacket made of a sheep's hide, with the wool inwards, a square crowned red cap, with a circular edge of black wool round the rim. These, with a long black beard, sandals made of the bark of the birch-tree, and legs bandaged in woollen, complete the dress.

'*Jedrova.*—The whole journey from Petersburg to Moscow offers nothing that will strike a traveller more than the town or village of Jedrova. It consists of one wide street, formed by the gable ends of wooden huts, whose roofs project far over their bases, and terminated by its church, The view of one of these towns will afford the reader a very correct idea of all the rest, as there is seldom any difference in the mode of constructing the poorer towns of Russia. A window in such places is a mark of distinction, and seldom noticed. The houses in general have only small holes, through which, as you drive by, you see a head stuck, as in a pillory.

'The forests, for the most part, consist of poor stunted trees; and the road, in summer, is described as the most abominable that can be passed. It is then formed by whole trunks of trees, laid across, parallel to each other, which occasion such violent jolting, as the wheels move from one to the other, that it cannot be borne without beds placed for the traveller to sit or lie upon.

'We had a very interesting peep into the manners of the peasantry. For this we were indebted to the breaking of our sledge at Poschol. The woman of the house was preparing a dinner for her family, who were gone to church. It consisted of soup only. Presently her husband, a boor, came in, attended by his daughters, with some small loaves of white bread, not larger than a pigeon's egg: these I suppose the priest had consecrated, for they placed them with great care before the Bogh. Then the bowing and crossing began, and they went

ıer, all eating out of the same bowl. Dinner ended, they
ːly to bed, as if to pass the night there, crossing and
efore. Having slept about an hour, one of the young
ording to an etiquette constantly observed, called her
presented him with a pot of vinegar, or *Quass*, the Rus-
e*. The man then rose, and a complete fit of crossing
seemed to seize him, with interludes so inexpressibly cha-
ıd ludicrous, that it was very difficult to preserve gravity.
of scratching and grunting; the apostrophes to his wife,
ınd to his God; were such as drunken Barnaby might
o Latin, but need not be expressed in English.'—
commodation for travellers is beyond description bad,
ersburg and Moscow. In the latter, nothing but neces-
render them sufferable. They demand three roubles a
gle room, or kennel, in which an Englishman would blush
dogs. The dirt on the floor may be removed only with
or a shovel. These places are entirely destitute of beds.
st of bare walls, with two or three old stuffed chairs,
kety, and full of vermin. The walls themselves are still
ting, as the Russians load them with the most abominable

is in every thing extraordinary; as well in disappointing
, as in surpassing it; in causing wonder and derision,
l regret. Let me conduct the reader back with me again
by which we entered, and thence through the streets,
spires, glittering with gold, amidst burnished domes and

nd trellisses from Naples; and warehouses from

accounts of its immense population, you wander
streets. Passing suddenly towards the quarter
are situated, you might walk upon the heads of
daily throng is there so immense, that, unable to
rough it, or assign any motive that might convene
you ask the cause; and are told that it is always
s the costume less various than the aspect of the
s, Turks, Tartars, Cossacks, Chinese, Muscovites,
Italians, Poles, Germans, all parade in the habits of
untries.
Russian inn; a complete epitome of the city itself.
our's was filled by an ambassador, and his suite,
a chamber beyond the Persians, lodged a party of
ple yet unknown, and any of whom might be ex-
as some newly-discovered species. They had bald
conical embroidered caps, and wore sheep-skins.
isians lodged a *nidus* of Bucharians, wild as the
All these were ambassadors from their different
ly jealous of each other, who had been to Peters-
commerce, peace and war.'—
fruit and food in the streets of Moscow prove very
ealth of the people; especially to the children who
At these places, for a few copeeks, (farthings)
ve to collect, they get a wholesome dinner. I saw
e stalls with plates of boiled rice, over which was
ney; and for each of these they paid about a penny
e Spring they sell apples (which they have a re-
of preserving through the winter, though I could
ion how this was contrived), baked pears, salad,
, (which are antiscorbutic, and esteemed delicious
ery rank,) wild berries, boiled rice, quass, honey,
lmost every eatable receives a formal benediction
before it is considered fit for use, no Russian will
of food until that ceremony has taken place. A
near the Mareschal Bridge is set apart for the bene-
and this is not given until the first apple drops from
brought in great form to the priest.
hat a practice more judicious can hardly be adopted;
hus saved from many maladies. I have seen a whole
ilitated through want of caution in this respect. A
d sooner eat pork, than a Russian unconsecrated

ost spirited passages of the book is the descrip-
er capital of Russia.
on of Moscow may be set down at 300,000,
superior to that of Petersburg; and the build-
h more scattered, it occupies more ground.
The

ers of the natives are exhibited here much more
han in the modern capital. Dr. Clarke arrived in
a witness of the Easter festivities, and to see all the
Ioscow displayed in motley processions on the public
s. These processions are made in carriages and on
and the carriages surpass, in number at least, any
of the kind in Europe. On particular days, they
thousand, and have generally six but never fewer
orses to each. Yet nothing can be more pitiful
pearance of these equipages, when separately exa-
ether we look at the aukwardness of the driver, the
harness, or the clumsiness of the vehicle. During
k, the Russians indulge their predilection for ring-
e numberless bells of Moscow are tolled incessantly:
ral-bell sends a hollow murmur over the city, like
f a vast organ, or the rattling of distant thunder.
ter of this bell is sixteen feet; yet it is much smaller
of the "*great* bell of Moscow," the largest ever
nd of such enormous weight (443,000lb.) as to ren-
ension impracticable. This bell was seen by Dr.
deep pit, exactly as it was described in former years
as Hanway. Its diameter at the mouth is twenty-
its perpendicular height nearly the same; and its
wenty-three inches

amount to three millions sterling, it may safely be taken for granted that the deſign will go no farther than the model.

'One day,' says Dr. Clarke, 'we found all the churches in the Kremlin open, and a prodigious concourse of people assembled at the celebration of the Great Festival of the Ascension. It is difficult to describe the scenes then exhibited within these buildings. I was carried in by a crowd, rushing forward like a torrent; and, being lifted by it from the ground, beheld, as I entered, a throng of devotees, in which there was danger of being pressed to death; all were in motion, crossing themselves, bowing their heads, and struggling who should first kiss the consecrated pictures. The bodies of their saints were exposed: and we were shewn, by the attending priests, some wood of '*the true Cross.*' Women, with tears streaming from their eyes, lifted their infants, and taught them to embrace the feet and hands of the images. Observing a crowd particularly eager to kiss the scull of an incorruptible saint, I asked a priest, in Latin, whose body the sepulchre contained. "Whence are you," said he, "that you know not the Tomb of St. Demetrius?"

'All that has been said or written of Roman-Catholic bigotry, affords but a feeble idea of the superstition of the Greek Church. It is certainly the greatest libel upon human reason, the severest scandal upon universal piety, that has yet disgraced the annals of mankind.'

'There are no people who observe Lent with more scrupulous and excessive rigour than the Russians. Travelling the road from Petersburg to Moscow, if at any time, in poor cottages, where the peasants appeared starving, I offered them a part of our dinner, they would shudder at the sight of it, and cast it to the dogs; dashing out of their children's hands, as an abomination, any food given to them; and removing every particle that might be left entirely from their sight. The same privation takes place among the higher ranks; but in proportion as this rigour has been observed, so much the more excessive is the degree of gluttony and relaxation, when the important intelligence that "*Christ is risen*" has issued from the mouth of the archbishop. During Easter they run into every kind of excess, rolling about drunk the whole week.'

'When Easter was proclaimed, the inn where we lodged became a Pandæmonium. Drinking, dancing, and singing, continued through the night and day. But, in the midst of all these excesses, quarrels hardly ever took place. The wild, rude riot of a Russian populace is full of humanity. Few disputes are heard; no blows are given; no lives endangered, but by drinking. No meetings take place of any kind, without repeating the expressions of peace and joy, CHRISTOS VOSCRESS! *Christ is risen!* to which the answer always is the same, VO ISTINEY VOSCRESS! *He is risen indeed!*

'On Easter Monday begins the presentation of the Paschal eggs: lovers to their mistresses, relatives to each other, servants to their masters, all bring ornamented eggs. Every offering at this season is called a Paschal egg. The meanest pauper in the street, presenting an egg, and repeating the words *Christos voscress*, may demand a salute even of the Empress. All business is laid aside; the upper

> ranks are engaged in visiting, balls, dinners, suppers, masquerades; while boors fill the air with their songs, or roll drunk about the streets. Servants appear in new and tawdry liveries; and carriages in the most sumptuous parade.
>
> 'In the midst of this uproar I made myself as much like a Russian as possible, and went in a *caftan* to one of the public balls of the citizens, given in our inn. It was held in a suite of several apartments; and a numerous band of music, composed of violins, wind instruments, and kettle-drums, had been provided. The master of the inn had also taken care to invite a company of gipsies, to entertain the company by their dancing. A single rouble was demanded as the price of admission. All fears of appearing like a foreigner vanished upon entering the principal ball-room; for I found an assembly as various in their appearance as characters in a masquerade. On the benches were squatted Turks, with their usual gravity and indifference, looking on with a solemn vacant stare, unmoved by shouts of joy or tumultuous songs, by the noise of the dancing, or the thundering of a pair of kettle-drums close to their ears. In another part were a party of Bucharians, with flat noses, high cheek-bones, and little eyes; their heads shaven, and a small conical embroidered cap on the crown of their sculls; in red morocco boots, long trowsers of blue cloth, with a girdle and a poignard. Besides these were Chinese merchants, Cossacks, and even Calmucs, all of whom appeared as spectators.
>
> 'Collected in other parts of the rooms were vocal performers, in parties of ten or twelve each, singing voluntaries. They preserved the most perfect harmony, each taking a separate part, though without any seeming consciousness of the skill thus exerted.'

After such a picture as this, the most zealous advocate of the Russians will hesitate before he puts in a plea against the charge of superstition. He would not have better success in a still more delicate point, the virtue of the ladies of rank; many of whom must be subjected to the censures which have been attached to the reputation of the magnanimous Catherine. Nor shall we wonder at these examples of conjugal inconstancy, when we consider that, in Russia, women of rank are often married to persons whom they had scarcely ever seen before wedlock; that such connections result from the mercenary calculations of parents; and that a dissolute and tyrannical behaviour on the part of the husband too often aggravates the evils of a selfish alliance.—Whatever may have been the success of Peter I. in improvements of some kinds, he had none in regard to the introduction of cleanliness; for we can hardly conceive a more complete contrast to what Dr. Clarke saw among his Dutch friends, than his description of the Russians:

> 'Some of the nobles are much richer than the richest of our English peers; and a vast number, as may be supposed, are very poor. To this poverty, and to these riches, are joined characteristic

istics in which the Russian peasant, and the Russian prince are the same: they are all equally barbarous. Visit a Russian, of whatsoever rank, at his country seat, and you will find him lounging about, with his collar open, uncombed, unwashed, unshaven, half-naked, eating raw turnips, or drinking *quass*. The raw turnip is handed about in slices, in the first houses, upon a silver salver, with brandy, as a whet before dinner. Their hair is universally in a state not to be described; and their bodies are only divested of vermin when they frequent the bath. It is a fact too notorious to admit dispute, that from the Emperor to the meanest slave, throughout the vast empire of all the Russias, including all its princes, nobles, priests, and peasants, there exists not a single individual in a thousand, whose body is not thus infested.'—'The real Russian rises at an early hour, and breakfasts on a dram with black bread. His dinner at noon consists of the coarsest and most greasy food, the scorbutic effects of which are counteracted by pickled cucumbers, sour cabbage, the juice of his *vaccinium*, and his nectar *quass*. Sleep, rendering him unmindful of his abject servitude and barbarous life, he particularly indulges; leeping always after eating, and going early to his bed. The principal articles of diet are the same everywhere — grease and brandy. The horrors of a Russian kitchen are inconceivable; and there is not bed in the whole empire that an English traveller would venture to proach, if he were aware of its condition.'—

'As we lived in some degree of intimacy with many of the Russian bility, their manners and opinions could not escape our notice. Of Europeans, they bear the greatest resemblance to the nobles of the Two Sicilies." The Neapolitans, and the grandees of Palermo, exactly like those of Moscow; and even the peasants of the two ntries have a certain degree of resemblance. This similitude may e from a similarity of government,—vicious and despotic, ignorant superstitious.'—

'A Russian nobleman will sell any thing he possesses, from his e to his lap-dog; from the decorations of his palace, to the ornaments of his person; any thing to obtain money; any thing to squander it away. Visiting a trading mineralogist, I was surprised to see glass-cases filled with court dresses; and still more so in being told they were dresses of the nobility; sent to be exposed for sale, as often they wanted money. Their plan is, to order whatever they can procure credit for; to pay for nothing; and to sell what they have ordered, as soon as they receive it.'—

'As the nobles have rarely any money at command, their traffic the Fine Arts, as in other things, is carried on by exchange. This rt of barter is of all things that in which they take the greatest delight. They purchase a picture for a carriage, or an imbroidered suit of clothes, just as they pay their physician with a snuff-box. In every thing the same infantine disposition is displayed, and, like children, they are tired of their toys almost in the moment they have acquired them. In their choice of pictures, they are pleased only with gay and splendid colouring, highly finished, in gaudy frames; "*quelque chose d'éclatant!*" to use an expression constantly in their mouths.—The method of paying their physicians by trinkets, might seem an inconvenience to the faculty; but it is not so. Dr. Rogerson at Petersburg, as I am informed, regularly received his snuff-box, and as regularly carried it to a jeweller for sale. The jeweller sold it again to the first nobleman who wanted a fee for his physician, so that the doctor obtained his box again; and at last the matter became so well understood between the jeweller and the physician, that it was considered by both parties as a sort of bank-note, and no words were necessary in transacting the sale of it.'—

'*Russian Hospitality*. Before the reign of Paul, a stranger no sooner arrived in Moscow, than the most earnest solicitations were made for his regular attendance at the table of this or that nobleman. If his visits were indiscriminate, jealousy and quarrels were the inevitable consequence. During the reign of Paul, Englishmen were guests likely to involve the host in difficulty and danger; yet, notwithstanding the risk incurred, it is but justice to acknowledge, the nobles felt themselves so gratified by the presence of a stranger, that, having requested his attendance, they would close their portals upon his equipage, lest it should be discerned by officers of the police.

'The curious spectacle presented at their dinners has not a parallel in the rest of Europe. The dishes and the wines correspond in gradation with the rank and condition of the guests. Those who sit near the master of the house are suffered to have no connection with the fare or the tenants at the lower end of the table. In barbarous times we had something like it in England; and perhaps the custom is not even now quite extinct in Wales, or in English farm-houses, where all the family, from the master to the lowest menial, sit down together. The choicest dishes at a Russian table are carefully placed at the upper end, and are handed to those guests stationed near the owner of the mansion, according to the order in which they sit; afterwards, if any thing remain, it is taken gradually to the rest. Thus a degree in precedency makes all the difference between something and nothing to eat; for persons at the bottom of the table are often compelled to rest satisfied with an empty dish. It is the same with regard to the wines; the best are placed near the top of the table, but, in proportion as the guests are removed from the post of honour, the wine before them diminishes in quality, until at last it degenerates into simple *quass*. Few things can offer more repugnance to the feelings of an Englishman, than the example of a wealthy glutton, pouring forth eulogium upon the choice wines he has set before a stranger merely out of ostentation, while a number of brave officers and dependants are sitting by him, to whom he is unable to offer a single glass. I sometimes essayed a violation of this barbarous custom, by taking the bottle placed before me, and filling the glasses of those below; but the offer was generally refused through fear of giving offence by acceptance, and it was a mode of conduct which I found could not be tolerated, even by the most liberal host. Two tureens of soup usually make their appearance, as we often see them in England; but, if a stranger should ask for that which is at the bottom of the table, the master of the house regards him with dismay, the rest all gaze at him with wonder, and when he tastes has obtained, he finds it to be a mess of dirty and abominable roth, stationed for persons who never venture to ask for soup from e upper end of the table. The number of attendants in waiting is rodigious. In the house of the young Count Orlof were not less an five hundred servants; many of these sumptuously clothed, and any others in rags. It was no unusual sight to observe behind a hair a fellow in plumes and gold lace, like a Neapolitan running-ootman, and another by his side looking like a beggar from the reets.'

To disseminate such impressions as these, with regard to the ussians, seems to be the grand object of this part of Dr. larke's labours. He seeks every opportunity of enforcing em, and recurs to them with as much keenness as a cele-rated writer on political economy displays in arraigning the ischiefs of the East India Company's monopoly. The pas-age of the rivulet which separates Sweden from Russia onducts the traveller, Dr. C. says, from 'all that dignifies the uman mind, to whatsoever most abject has been found to egrade it. Great Britain (he adds) will forgive the frankness f one among her sons, who has ventured, although harshly, to peak the truth; a language not wholly obscured in the more autious descriptions of former writers; Tubervile of England; ugustine of Germany; Olearius of Denmark; and more re-ently, the Abbe de la Chappe of France.'—The writings of ubervile are remarkable. He visited Russia in the reign of ueen Elizabeth, in the capacity of secretary to our ambassa-or Randolph, the first negotiator who went from England to at northern court. This secretary appears to have mixed in ussian society, and to have seen quite enough to cure him of e *mania* of travelling to distant regions. He communicated his bservations through the medium of verses addressed to his iends at home; and Dr. Clarke, finding that the book in hich they are printed (Hakluyt's voyages) is extremely rare, as selected some of the most striking passages. They are urious, both as a specimen of the versification of the age, and an evidence of the resemblance in manners between the ussians of the sixteenth and those of the eighteenth centuries:

"I left my native soile, full like a retchlesse man,
And unacquainted of the coast, among the Russes ran:
A people passing rude, to vices vile inclinde,
Folke fit to be of *Bacchus* train, so quaffing is their kinde.

* * *

"Their Idoles have their hearts, on God they never call,
Unlesse it be (*Nichola Bough*) that hangs against the wall.
The house that hath no god, or painted saint within,
Is not to be resorted to, that roofe is full of sinne.

——— " The people beastly bee.
I write not all I know, I touch but here and there,
For if I should, my penne would pinch, and eke offend I feare.

* * *

" The maners are so *Turkie* like, the men so full of guile,
The women wanton, temples stuff'd with idoles that defile
The seats that sacred ought to be, the customes are so quaint,
As if I would describe the whole, I feare my pen would faint.
In summe, I say, I never saw a prince that so did raigne,
Nor people so beset with Saints, yet all but vile and vaine.
Wilde *Irish* are as civill as the *Russies* in their kinde,
Hard choice which is the best of both, ech bloody, rude, and
blinde."

'It may be asked,' says Dr. Clarke, 'why so little has been hitherto made public concerning the real character of this very profligate people: to this the answer is, that there is no country where such pains have been employed to prevent it. There is nothing wherein the late Catharine employed so much artifice, as in keeping secret the true history of her own people, and the wretched state of her empire. This is evident in all her correspondence with Voltaire; in all her instructions to her ministers; in the glaring falsehoods published by her hired writers; but particularly in the work (which) she with her agents put together, in answer to the writings of the Abbé Chappe. A party of her *Savans* were engaged to accompany her in a voyage down the Volga: as they sailed along, she caused that work to be read, every one present being called upon to contribute something, either of smart criticism, or contradictory remark; and the notes so collected, being afterwards arranged by the celebrated Aleksye Musine Puchkine, constituted the work bearing the title of "*The Antidote.*" Nothing could be more deceitful than the false glitter of the Court of Petersburg in the time of Catharine. Pompous plans of improvement seemed to be the subject of daily conversation, and were industriously propagated in foreign countries, although not one of them was carried into effect. They existed only upon paper, like the troops (which) Russia often affects to muster upon her frontier; or like the numerous governments and garrisons, whose mere names serve to occupy the void spaces upon the maps of her desolate territories.'

Our chief objection to Dr. Clarke's exposition of the Russian character regards not so much the exaggeration in his charges, as his total silence respecting the causes of the evil. A scholar and a philosopher would have greater pleasure, we might naturally imagine, in explaining how things came to be as he saw them, than in giving way to endless complaint and invective. We shall introduce a few remarks by way of supplying this deficiency, and of shewing that the wonder would have been had he found things otherwise.—The Poles, we all know, are much more backward in civilization than their western neighbours; and the Russians, more remote from the enlightened part of Europe, more immersed in feudal servitude, and inhabiting a country which is in many parts inferior in soil and climate to Poland, are, naturally, a great many degrees still lower in the scale of civil improvement. If a tract of country, near our own doors, we mean the west of Ireland, still affords striking evidence of the tardy progress by which a nation emerges from barbarism, need we be surprised at the prevalence of ignorance and superstition among the subjects of the Russian autocrat? All the blessings to society, which follow in the train of liberty, are as yet unknown in Russia; and Dr. Clarke may style the people, without injustice or exaggeration, a nation of slaves. While their sovereign is absolute in public affairs, their nobles are more uncontrouled respecting their vassals than were the aristocracy of western Europe in the worst days of baronial tyranny. The Russian peasants are, both in law and practice, the property of their landlord; their labour must either be given to him, or they must pay a yearly sum for liberty to work for themselves; they are *adscripti glebæ*, and are regularly sold with the land. Nay more, without waiting for the sale of the land, they may be brought to market and transferred like any other commodity; the regulations which confine their sale to persons of a particular rank being easily evaded. Now what kind of manners should a traveller be prepared to find in such a state of things? Can such a people be in any degree better than semi-barbarous, and is it fair to look for more from them than from our ancestors four hundred years ago? Had Dr. Clarke merely given us a description of what the Russians are, he could not have failed to succeed in reducing considerably the vulgar estimate of their political consequence, and of the value of their commerce to England: but, in the present state of the book, his readers, judging from the asperity of his tone, will be disposed to suspect exaggeration, and may ascribe to the influence of feeling that condemnation which ought to proceed only from deliberate inquiry. He sets out indeed by acknowleging that he was exposed to a severe penance among the Russians; and those who judge of him by the present volume may be inclined to infer, that he is not of a disposition to receive personal slights with philosophic indifference. Moreover, the undistinguishing rigour of his censures is contradicted by various examples adduced by himself, of liberality in the general conduct of Russians, and of individual kindness to him. It is weakened also by the feebleness of several cases which he brings forwards as subjects of grievous complaint, but many of which are merely temporary, and resulting from the personal character of the madman who was then at the head of government. Under this impression, he might have saved himself the trouble of giving so conspi-

lace (No. I. in the Appendix) to the refusal of a
Were any thing else wanted to justify our opinion
larke's accusations originate fully as much in temper
ction, we have it in his own admission; for he ac-
(page 294.) that 'his censures on the Russians
perhaps too indiscriminately lavished.' Our ani-
ns will receive a farther support from the following
vhich records an example of hospitality, while it
brilliant idea of the magnificence of the nobility:

> *l of the nobles.* It took place every Tuesday; and, it
> ly said, Europe has not beheld its equal. I never was
> by the appearance of an assembly convened for the pur-
> cing. The laws of the society exclude every person who
> a plebeian; and this exclusion has been extended to fo-
> erefore we felt grateful in being allowed admission. Prince
> , who married an English lady, kindly procured tickets
> ough it was considered dangerous at that time to have the
> hospitality towards Englishmen.
>
> *up d'œil* upon entering the grand saloon is inconceivable.
> years that I have been accustomed to spectacles of a simi-
> different parts of the continent, I have never seen any
> vhich it might compare. The company consisted of near
> d persons; nobles only being admitted. The dresses
> st sumptuous that can be imagined; and, what is more

The condition of the Russian peasants would afford to the mildest traveller an ample subject for reprobation: but Dr. C. carries the matter too far:

'The wealth of the nobles is really enormous. We have not in England individuals possessing equal property, whatsoever may be their rank or situation. Some of them have seventy and even an hundred thousand peasants. Their fortunes are estimated by the number of their peasants, as West India merchants reckon their income by the number of their hogsheads. These peasants pay them, upon the average, ten roubles annually, in specie. If the peasant has been required by his lord to give him three days of labour during each week, the annual tax is said to be proportionally diminished. But, in despite of all the pretended regulations made in favour of the peasant, the tax he is called upon to pay, or the labour he is compelled to bestow, depends wholly on the caprice or the wants of his tyrant. Labour is not exacted from males only. Women, and children from the age of ten and upwards, are obliged to perform their equal share. Tithes are moreover demanded of whatever may remain in their hands; of linen, poultry, eggs, butter, pigs, sheep, lambs, and every product of the land, or of domestic manual labour. Should a peasant by any misfortune be deprived of the tribute expected by his lord, he must beg, borrow, or steal, to make up the deficiency.—

'Other nations speak of Russian indolence; which is remarkable, as no people are naturally more lively, or more disposed to employment. We may assign a cause for their inactivity: it is necessity. Can there exist incitement to labour, when it is certain that a tyrant will bereave industry of all its fruits? The only property a Russian nobleman allows his peasant to possess, is the food he cannot, or will not, eat himself; the bark of trees, chaff, and other refuse; quass, water, and fish oil. If the slave has sufficient ingenuity to gain money without his knowledge, it becomes a dangerous possession; and, when once discovered, falls instantly into the hands of his lord —

'Traversing the provinces south of Moscow, the land is as the garden of Eden: a fine soil, covered with corn, and apparently smiling in plenty. Enter the cottage of the poor labourer, surrounded by all these riches, and you will find him dying of hunger, or pining from bad food, and in want of the common necessaries of life. Extensive pastures covered with cattle afford no milk to him. In autumn, the harvest yields no bread for his children. The lord claims all the produce.'

Let us contrast this high colouring with a part of the plain delineation of the Rev. Reginald Heber, who travelled through Russia several years after Dr. Clarke, and the notes of whose MS. Journal form a valuable addition to this volume:

"No slave can quit his village, or his master's family, without a passport. The punishment of living runaways is imprisonment, and hard labour in the Government works, and a master may send to the public workhouse any peasant he chooses. The prisons of Moscow and Kostroma were chiefly filled with such runaway slaves, who were

part in irons. On the frontier they often escape; but
r it is almost impossible: yet, during the summer, deser-
y common; and they sometimes lurk about for many
ng miserably in the woods. This particularly happens
s a new levy of soldiers. The soldiers are levied, one from
number of peasants, at the same time all over the empire.
ter is displeased with his slave, he may send him for a
y time he pleases, and take a receipt from Government,
ts the recruits he sends to Government.
the political situation of the peasant. With regard to
, or means of supporting existence, I do not think they
Their houses are in tolerable repair, moderately roomy,
pted to the habits of the people. They have the air of
ently fed, and their clothing is warm and substantial.
nd the materials for building, are very cheap; but cloth-
They wear a blue Nantkin shirt, trimmed with red,
two or three roubles; linen drawers; and linen or hempen
d round their feet and legs, over which the richer sort
oots. The sheep-skin *schaub* costs eight roubles, but it
ime; as does a lamb-skin cap, which costs three roubles.
n red cap costs about the same. To clothe a Russian
soldier is, I apprehend, three times as chargeable as in
Their clothing however is strong, and, being made loose
sts longer. It is rare to see a Russian quite in rags.
to the idleness of the lower classes here, of which we had
complaints, it appears, that where they have an interest

was already losing its blossom. Many other later flowers, by their forward state, gave us notice that it was time to bid adieu to cities and the "busy haunts of men," if we wished to behold Nature in more southern latitudes, before she became divested of her smiling countenance.'

Accordingly, on the 31st May they left Moscow. That capital is nearly in the latitude of Edinburgh, and a few days travelling brought them as far south as that of London:

'We were now traversing the southern latitude of our beloved country, in a direct line towards the south; and, as we approached Woronetz, observed many of our indigenous plants; the large thistle, the kilk-weed, dandelion, white clover, wood-strawberry, plantain, and the dock-weed. Sudden and loud thunder-storms, with hail and rain, majestic rolling clouds, temporary gusts of wind, and transitory sunbeams, often reminded us of an English Spring. Such natural resemblance is by no means the necessary accompaniment of similar latitude. Naples and Constantinople are, with respect to each other, nearly on the same line of latitude, but the climate of the latter is many degrees colder. The mild aspect of the Plain of Woronetz may be attributed to the want of forests, the removal of which in all countries heightens the temperature of their climate. Horace describes the mountain *Soracte* white with snow; but the climate of Italy is now so altered, that such a sight is hardly ever observed.'—

'In the time of Peter the Great, when that monarch came to Woronetz, to build his first ship of war, there were scarcely an hundred wooden huts in the place. It is now a very handsome town, and its commerce entitles it to considerable distinction. By means of the Don, it possesses an easy intercourse with the Black Sea; and, from its remarkable situation, it is particularly qualified to become a great capital. It is placed so as to enjoy the advantages both of warm and of cold climates, and holds an intercourse with all parts of the empire. Nature is so bountiful here in the summer, that plants found in very southern latitudes grow almost spontaneously. The Water Melon, so rarely in perfection any where, is as common at Woronetz as the cucumber in England, and flourishes in the open air, with spicy and aromatic herbs. Yet the inhabitants experience very great extremes of temperature; having sometimes, according to the thermometer of Réaumur, thirty degrees of cold in the winter, and twenty-eight degrees of heat (95 of Fahr.) in the summer. They use the precaution of double casements to their windows, as at Moscow and Petersburg, and have very large stoves in all their apartments. The immediate soil below the town of Woronetz is sand; on a steep mound or bank of which it has been built. It lies in the fifty-fourth degree of northern latitude. The vineyards of Europe terminate many degrees nearer to the equator, and yet the vine flourishes at Woronetz. The inhabitants neglect to cultivate it for the purpose of making wine; importing it, at great expence, from the Don Cossacks, the Greeks, Turks, and people of the Crimea.

'The change of season, as at Moscow, does not take place at Woronetz with that uncertainty which characterizes our climate.

Winter regularly begins in December and ends in the middle of March. According to Gmelin, the autumn resembles a moderate summer. Vegetation is so rapid during spring, that upon the ninth of June we saw a pear-tree which had put forth a strong scion above a yard in length. We found the climate so different from the temperature to which we had been lately accustomed, that we were compelled to alter our clothing altogether. The beams of the sun were intolerable; while a south-east wind, like a Sirocco, blew frequently and even tempestuously; causing insufferable heat, during the time we remained. The only method we had of cooling our apartments was, by shutting the windows, and drawing curtains over them.'—

'South of Woronetz we found the country perfectly level, and the roads (if a fine turf lawn may be so denominated) the finest, at this season, in the whole world. The turf whereon we travelled was smooth and firm, without a stone or pebble, or even the mark of wheels, and we experienced little or no dust. Nothing could be more delightful than this part of our journey. The whole of these immense plains were enamelled with the greatest variety of flowers imaginable. The earth seemed covered with the richest and most beautiful blossoms, fragrant, aromatic, and, in many instances, entirely new to the eye of a British traveller. Even during the heat of the day, refreshing breezes wafted a thousand odours, and all the air was perfumed. The sky-lark was in full song; various insects, with painted wings, either filled the air, or were seen couched within the blossoms. Advancing nearer to the Don, turtle-doves, as tame as domestic pigeons, flew around our carriage. The pools were filled with wild-fowl; dogs, like those of the Abruzzo Mountains, guarded the numerous herds and flocks passing or grazing. Melons of different sorts flourished in the cultivated although uninclosed grounds near the villages, covering several acres of land.'—

'The severity of the winter here is hardly reconcileable with the appearance of a country abounding in plants which are found in warm climates. Yet the snow annually affords a sledge-road the whole way from the Gulph of Finland to the Sea of Azof.'

We conclude these observations on the climate with an extract from a diary of our traveller, compared with a corresponding record of the weather in London:

Observation on the Scale of Fahrenheit.	Where made.	When made.	Observation in London on the same Day.
32° { Freezing Point }	Petersburg,	April 3, 1800.	49°
34	Novogorod,	April 4.	54
37	Yaschelbizy,	April 5.	56
35	Vysneulilykoy,	April 6.	59
40	Gorodna,	April 7.	62
44	Moscow,	April 16.	55
46	Moscow,	April 17.	55
50	Moscow,	April 18.	61
50	Moscow,	April 19.	60
50	Moscow,	April 20.	58
64	Moscow,	May 15.	59

Observation on the Scale of Fahrenheit.	Where made.	When made.	Observation in London on the same Day.
61°	Moscow,	May 16.	56°
52	Moscow,	May 17.	56
51	Moscow,	May 18.	60
55	Moscow,	May 19.	64
68	Moscow,	May 20.	61
75	Woronetz,	June 7.	62
83	Woronetz,	June 8.	64
84	Woronetz,	June 9.	63
75	Woronetz,	June 10.	58
84	Woronetz,	June 11.	60

If Dr. Clarke acts the part of an ill-humoured traveller while he is in Russia, it must be allowed that he embraces the first opportunity of assuming a more engaging character; for no sooner does he approach the Don, than he pronounces that he is among a very worthy class of people. The Malo-Russians, inhabiting the country between the Dnieper and the Donetsk, (called in the maps, Little Russia) are, in his opinion, a race much superior to the Russians. They are not only better looking, but 'more industrious, more courageous, and more polite.' Such is the contrast, he adds, in regard to cleanliness, that a traveller might fancy himself transported from Russia to Holland. In their features, the Malo-Russians resembled Cossacks; and the similitude which both bear to the Poles appears to imply a descent from some common origin. In one point, however, viz. the love of liquor, the Malo-Russians are unfortunately as gross delinquents as their neighbours to the eastward.

From the Malo-Russians, Dr. Clarke proceeded to the Cossacks of the Don, among whom he experienced the most hospitable reception. Not only were the Atamans, or local commanders, extremely attentive, but the General in chief himself invited the travellers to his house, where they imagined themselves transported to the enjoyment of all the comforts and elegancies of polished society. After having premised this display of kindness on the part of the Cossack chiefs, and leaving our readers to make allowance for its influence on the feelings and representations of a traveller, we proceed to extract the author's report of the habits and character of this remarkable people:

'There is something extremely martial, and even intimidating, in the first appearance of a Cossack. His dignified and majestic look; his elevated brows, and dark mustachoes; his tall helmet of black wool, terminated by a crimson sack, with its plume, laced festoon, and white cockade; his upright posture; the ease and elegance of his gait, give him an air of great importance. The sabre is not worn, except on horseback, on a journey, or in war. In its place is substituted a switch, or cane, with an ivory head: this every Cossack bears in his hand, as an appendage of his dress; being at all times prepared to mount his horse at a moment's notice. Their cap or helmet is the most beautiful part of the costume; because it is becoming to every set of features. There is no nation in the world more neat with regard to dress; and, whether young or old, it seems to become them all. A quiet life seems quite unsuited to their disposition. They loiter about, having no employment to interest them; and, passionately fond of war, seem distressed by the indolence of peace.

'We soon perceived that the Cossacks were characterized by great liveliness and animation; little disposed to industrious occupation, but fond of amusement, and violent when their passions are rouzed. In their dances, drinking-songs, and discussions, they betray great vehemence.'—

'The Cossacks of the Don, according to the account the best instructed give of their own people, are a mixture of various nations, principally of Circassians, Malo-Russians, and Russians, but also of Tartars, Poles, Greeks, Turks, Calmucks, and Armenians. In the town of Tcherchaskoy alone, and in the same street, may be seen all these different people at once, each in the habit peculiar to his nation. Thus, from a small settlement of rovers, augmented principally by intercourse with the neighbouring Circassians, has since accumulated, like a vast *avalange*, the immense horde of the Cossacks. Before the middle of the tenth century, they had already reached the frontier of Poland, and begun an intercourse with the people of that country: this was often attended with an augmentation of their horde by the settlement of Polish emigrants among them. So general have been the migrations of the Cossacks, that their tribes are now found from the banks of the Dnieper to the remotest confines of Siberia. According to their different emigrations and settlements, they are at present distinguished by the various names of *Malo-Russian* Cossacks, *Don* Cossacks, Cossacks of the *Black Sea*, of the *Volga*, of *Grebenskoy*, of *Orenbourg*, of the *Ural Alps*, and of *Siberia*; where they have received yet other appellations, and extend even to the mountains of China, and the Eastern Ocean. It is necessary to confine our attention to the principal hive, whence, with little exception, all those swarms proceeded.

'Nothing has contributed more to augment the colony of Don Cossacks, than the freedom they enjoy. Surrounded by systems of slavery, they offer the singular spectacle of an increasing republic; like a nucleus, putting forth its roots and ramifications to all parts of an immense despotic empire, which considers it a wise policy to promote their increase, and to guarantee their privileges. As they detest the Russians, a day may arrive, when, conscious of their own importance, they will make their masters more fully sensible of their power. A sage regulation in their military constitution, from a very early period, induced them to grant all the privileges they enjoy to such of their prisoners of war as chose to settle among them. Thus, from the success attending their incursions, their numbers have rapidly increased. In the year 1579, they made their appearance, for the first time, in the Russian armies. In 1734, their earliest colonies were established upon the Volga: but by much the most powerful detachment from the original hive, is established upon the shores of the Caspian, at the mouth of the Ural river: it left the Don in the beginning of the fifteenth century, and has since been augmented by subsequent emigrations from the parent stock.'—

'There is no nation (not even excepting my own) more cleanly in apparel than the Cossacks. The dress of the women is singular. It differs from all the costumes of Russia; and its magnificence is displayed in the ornaments of a cap, somewhat resembling the mitre of a Greek bishop. The common dress of men in Tcherchaskoy is a blue jacket, with a waistcoat and trowsers of white dimity; the latter so white and spotless, that they seem always new. We never saw a Cossack in a dirty suit of clothes. Their hands, moreover, are always clean, their hair free from vermin, their teeth white, and their skin has a healthy and cleanly appearance. Polished in their manners, instructed in their minds, hospitable, generous, disinterested, humane and tender to the poor, good husbands, good fathers, good wives, good mothers, virtuous daughters, valiant and dutiful sons; such are the natives of Tcherchaskoy. In conversation the Cossack is a gentleman; for he is well-informed, free from prejudice, open, sincere, and honourable.'

To this magnificent encomium of Dr. Clarke, we deem it prudent to subjoin the more explicit description and more sober commendation of Mr. Heber:

"The Cossack territory, which is almost entirely pasture land, is divided into stanitzas, or cantons. To each of these, a certain portion of land and fishery is allotted by Government, and an annual allowance of corn from Voronetz, and northwards, according to the returned number of Cossacks. They are free from all taxes; even from those of salt and distilleries.

"The Cossack, in consequence of his allowance, may be called on to serve for any term, not exceeding three years, in any part of the world, mounted, armed, and clothed, at his own expence, and making good any deficiencies which may occur. Food, pay, and camp equipage, are furnished by Government. Those who have served three years are not liable, or at least not usually called upon, to serve abroad, except on particular emergencies.

"The Procurator declared (that) the whole number of Cossacks, liable to be called on for one or other of these services, amounted to 200,000. He acknowledged, that as they would allow no examination into their numbers, he spoke only from conjecture, and from the different allowances of corn, &c. occasionally made. The whole number of male population he reckoned at half a million. The situation of a Cossack is considered as comfortable; and their obligations to service are deemed well repaid by their privileges and their freedom. 'Free as a Cossack' is a proverb we often heard in Russia.

"The manners of the people struck us, *from their superiority to the Russians, in honesty and dignity.*

"Both

men and women are handsome, and taller than the Mu-
This name they hold in great contempt, as we had several
ties of observing.

cation among the Cossacks is not so low as is generally
and it improves daily. All the children of officers are sent
demy of Tcherkask, and learn French, German, &c. It
ay-time when we were there; but their progress was well
."

[*To be concluded in our next Number.*]

Eighteen Hundred and Eleven. A Poem. By Anna
ætitia Barbauld. 4to. 2s. 6d. Johnson and Co.

g prescriptive right, poets are prophets as well as
sts, and, while they lash the vices and follies of the
eneration, can take a glance at futurity and announce
hich will "be hereafter." On the strength of this
ogative, Mrs. Barbauld soars away from the existing
he world to ages and to empires yet unborn; and
hought which occurred to us, after our perusal of her
s that, instead of purporting to be descriptive of the
teen Hundred and Eleven, it should have been made to
subsequent period. We should not say, perhaps, that
e have been intitled *Two Thousand Eight Hundred and*

of glory to run, and that the prophetic warnings of such writers as Mrs. Barbauld, by operating on our good sense, may even defer the period of their completion. In reviewing a small poem, we cannot launch into political considerations: but it is the opinion of this lady that we have deserved the ruin which, as the Cassandra of the state, she denounces:

> 'But, Britain, know,
> Thou who hast shared the guilt must share the woe.
> Nor distant is the hour.'

Not satisfied with uttering this gloomy prediction, she repeats it in the course of a few lines:

> 'Yes, thou must droop; thy Midas dream is o'er;
> The golden tide of Commerce leaves thy shore,
> Leaves thee to prove the alternate ills that haunt
> Enfeebling Luxury and ghastly Want;
> Leaves thee, perhaps, to visit distant lands,
> And deal the gifts of Heaven with equal hands.'

However, like a true patriot, Mrs. B. glows with a strong affection for her native land, and knows how to appreciate the value of the many blessings which distinguish it. Her muse is peculiarly animated and pathetic on this occasion; and some solace is afforded by the reflection that 'the full harvest of our mental year' will enrich 'Nations beyond the Apalachian hills,' and that we shall be the Greece and Rome of the Columbian world. So beautifully has Mrs. Barbauld expanded this thought, that we should be unjust to our readers if we withheld the passage:

> 'Yet, O my country, name beloved, revered,
> By every tie that binds the soul endeared,
> Whose image to my infant senses came
> Mixt with Religion's light and Freedom's holy flame! *
> If prayers may not avert, if 'tis thy fate
> To rank amongst the names that once were great,
> Not like the dim cold Crescent shalt thou fade,
> Thy debt to Science and the Muse unpaid;
> Thine are the laws surrounding states revere,
> Thine the full harvest of the mental year,
> Thine the bright stars in Glory's sky that shine,
> And arts that make it life to live are thine.
> If westward streams the light that leaves thy shores,
> Still from thy lamp the streaming radiance pours.
> Wide spreads thy race from Ganges to the pole,
> O'er half the western world thy accents roll:
> Nations beyond the Apalachian hills
> Thy hand has planted and thy spirit fills:

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* Mrs. B. is here forced to employ an Alexandrine to unbosom her full soul. *Rev.*

Soon as their gradual progress shall impart
The finer sense of morals and of art,
Thy stores of knowledge the new states shall know,
And think thy thoughts, and with thy fancy glow;
Thy Lockes, thy Paleys shall intruct their youth,
Thy leading star direct their search for truth;
Beneath the spreading Platan's tent-like shade,
Or by Missouri's rushing waters laid,
"Old father Thames" shall be the Poets' theme,
Of Hagley's woods the enamoured virgin dream,
And Milton's tones the raptured ear enthrall,
Mixt with the roar of Niagara's fall;
In Thomson's glass the ingenuous youth shall learn
A fairer face of Nature to discern;
Nor of the Bards that swept the British lyre
Shall fade one laurel, or one note expire.
Then, loved Joanna, to admiring eyes
Thy storied groups in scenic pomp shall rise;
Their high soul'd strains and Shakespear's noble rage
Shall with alternate passion shake the stage[*].
Some youthful Basil from thy moral lay
With stricter hand his fond desires shall sway;
Some Ethwald, as the fleeting shadows pass,
Start at his likeness in the mystic glass;
The tragic Muse resume her just controul,
With pity and with terror purge the soul,
While wide o'er trans-atlantic realms thy name
Shall live in light, and gather *all* its fame.'

Imlay and Filson, in their "American Topography," speak of a person who remembered the ground on which he saw the great and flourishing city of Philadelphia, when it was a wild, covered with brambles and morasses. Mrs. B. inverts the picture with respect to the British Metropolis, and points to a future period when the spot on which London stands shall revert to its original wildness, and trans-atlantic travellers will

'By scattered hamlets trace its ancient bound
And, choaked no more with fleets, fair Thames survey
Through reeds and sedge pursue its idle way:'

but these events cannot occur within the life of any existing individual. A long, long time must elapse before the parish of St. Martin's will again be *in the fields*.

Imagination pictures to the poet's eye some "sad historian of the pensive plain," who, in pointing out curious objects to inquirers, will do justice to names dear to Patriotism, Science, and Valour:

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[*] Need we add, since Mrs. B. has not explained her allusion, that this compliment is paid to the dramas of *Joanna Baillie*?—*Rev.*

'Perhaps some Briton, in whoſe muſing mind
Thoſe ages live which time has caſt behind,
To every spot shall lead his wondering gueſts
On whose known site the beam of glory reſts:
Here Chatham's eloquence in thunder broke,
Here Fox perſuaded, or here Garrick spoke;
Shall boaſt how Nelson, fame and death in view,
To wonted victory led his ardent crew,
In England's name enforced, with loftieſt tone[*],
Their duty,—and too well fulfilled his own:
How gallant Moore[†], as ebbing life diſſolved,
But hoped his country had his fame abſolved.
Or call up sages whose capacious mind
Left in its course a track of light behind;
Point where mute crowds on Davy's lips reposed,
And Nature's coyeſt secrets were diſclosed;
Join with their Franklin, Prieſtley's injured name,
Whom, then, each continent shall proudly claim.'

rs. B. well portrays that myſterious Spirit or Genius
ch walks the earth, at one period rousing nations from a
almoſt bordering on that of the brutes to mental exertion
to all the improvements of science and the arts, and at
her, by deserting them, occasioning their decline and subse-
nt degradation. She next shews the effects of the ardor of
rovement in counteracting our northern climate, and in the
incement of taste, comfort, and luxury. Then, discarding
ory for prophecy, she represents the splendors of the British
ropolis (which now "far outshine the wealth of Ormus or of
') as about to pass away; and she concludes her poem with a
of the new empire which, under the auspices of science
liberty, will arise on the other side of the Atlantic:

'London exults:—on London, Art beſtows
Her summer-ices and her winter-rose;
Gems of the east her mural crown adorn,
And plenty at her feet pours forth her horn;
While even the exiles her juſt laws disclaim,
People a continent, and build a name:
August she sits, and with extended hands
Holds forth the book of life to distant lands.

'Yet faireſt flowers expand but to decay;
The worm is in thy core, thy glories pass away;
Arts, arms, and wealth destroy the fruits they bring;
Commerce, like beauty, knows no second spring.

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[*] Every reader will recollect the sublime telegraphic dispatch,
ngland expects every man to do his duty."

[†] "I hope England will be satisfied," were the last words of
eral Moore.'

Crime

rime walks thy streets, fraud earns her unblest bread,
'er want and woe thy gorgeous robe is spread,
nd angel-charities in vain oppose :
Vith grandeur's growth the mass of misery grows.
or see,—to other climes the Genius soars,
le turns from Europe's desolated shores ;
nd lo, even now, 'midst mountains wrapt in storm,
n Andes' heights he shrouds his awful form ;
n Chimborazo's summits treads sublime,
leasuring in lofty thought the march of time ;
idden he calls :—" 'Tis now the hour !" he cries,
preads his broad hand, and bids the nations rise.
a Plata hears amidst her torrents' roar,
otosi hears it, as she digs the ore :
rdent, the genius fans the noble strife,
nd pours through feeble souls a higher life,
iouts to the mingled tribes from sea to sea,
nd swears—Thy world, Columbus, shall be free.'

h this poem contains many energetic lines and bold
ons, it disappoints us as a picture of the present era. It
ier fault, which is indeed rare,—it is much shorter than
have wished.

The *Regimental Companion* comprehends all the instructions, cir-
ar letters, and regulations, necessary for enabling military men of
ranks and descriptions to understand their respective duties in
racks and cantonments, in camps, in garrison, or in the field,
n Generals commanding armies and districts to non-commissioned
cers, and even to privates. It also gives an account of the mili-
staff of our army, from the Commander in Chief downwards
ough all its branches; of its medical staff, commissariat, agency,
-pay, allowances, widows' pensions, &c., as well as of the œco-
ly and rules to be observed in its different departments, and the
tive functions of those who are employed in them. The indus-
us and ingenious author himself informs us, in the few following
rds, of his object in compiling and publishing this performance:
reface, p. xi.)

The intention of this work is not only to arrange existing rules
l regulations, so as to render them familiar to every officer and
lier, but its ulterior design is likewise to point out what obstructs
free exercise of them.

With regard to the observations, which occur in almost every
e, it may be necessary to say, that they are founded on the three
d principles of *Order*, *Economy*, and *Confidence*. Order is re-
amended by an adoption of rules, that must be absolute through-
the army (call it by whatever name you will, in its divided capa-
of Guards, Line, Fencibles, Militia or Volunteers); Economy,
a separation of civil from military functions; and Confidence, by
earty co-operation of all sects and opinions for the public welfare.'

The value of Major James's remarks, interspersed throughout in the
m of notes, is sufficiently proved by this circumstance, that many
hem have been adopted in the service since they were first made.

The new edition of the *Dictionary* discovers an uncommon degree
ndustry, as well as diversified extent of information. It not only
nishes clear and distinct directions, with regard to all the minutiæ
tactics and other parts of the military profession, but in the prin-
al articles much useful instruction is delivered with respect to the
limer parts of the art of war. It is not, in its present form, to
viewed as a mere collection or vocabulary of technical terms. It
tains correct definitions and descriptions of the various tools, im-
ments, and processes in the different trades and professions that
more or less subservient to the success of military operations.
e compilation of such a work requires a much greater extent of
owlege, as well as of labour, than people are generally aware.
e celebrated D'Alembert, having once had it in contemplation to
npile a general dictionary, observed that, in order to execute it
perly, it would be necessary for him to visit the shops of car-
nters, joiners, blacksmiths, &c. &c. — Among the improvements
this edition, is a faithful translation of the whole of *Belidor's Dic-
naire Portatif de l'Ingénieur*, with the most material terms in civil
l military architecture and horsemanship; and an account of the
eases incident to horses.

POETRY, &c.

Art. 14. *The Pleasures of Friendship:* a Poem, by Frances Arabella Rowden. 2d Edition. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

This poem appears to be the production of an elegant and feeling mind, capable of appreciating the pleasures which it describes. The fair author attempts no hazardous flights nor questionable sublimities, but her style and sentiments are in general correct and pleasing; though we do not agree with her in thinking that *Friendship* inspired the Maid of Corinth with the idea of tracing her lover's likeness on the wall. In page 52, we are hurried from Damon and Pythias to *Sans-Souci* and the King of Prussia, and then back again to Epaminondas, though a little attention might have obviated this incongruity.

Art. 15. *The Famous Historical Tragedy of "The Rich Jew of Malta;"* as it was acted before the King and Queen in His Majesty's Theatre, at Whitehall, by His Majesty's Servants at the Cockpit. Imitated from the Works of Machiavelli. By Christopher Marlo. 8vo. 2s. 6d. London: reprinted for Richardson. 1810.

The reason for republishing "The Rich Jew of Malta" does not seem very obvious. It is one of the most extravagant of the old plays in plot and conduct: though as to conduct, indeed, there is none in it,—for events of the utmost consequence, which would have required months at least to prepare, follow one another even without the division of acts. "Time and Space," and whatever abstract notion besides there may be, most incapable of dramatic accommodation, are here dragged neck and heels into the service of the stage. The murders, also, are numerous beyond example. Titus Andronicus and Tom Thumb are nothing, in point of homicide, to "The Rich Jew of Malta." A whole convent of nuns are poisoned by a mess of pottage; and two worthy individuals, a courtezan and her cull, perish by the deadly fragrance of a nosegay! — Not to mention a brace of Friars who are killed at one shot, by Barabas, the wealthy and wicked Israelite. We omit sundry of his subordinate offences, such as making two rival cavaliers cut throats mutually by forging mutual challenges, — taking off his daughter by potent drugs,— and preparing a warm bath of sulphur for his benefactors the Turks: — in a word, the Jew lives like Beelzebub upon earth, and dies blaspheming. Very few passages of poetical vigour, or powerful originality of thought, compensate for the grotesque absurdities of this sanguinary composition. — We select one or two, which, perhaps, breathe something of the old dramatic vein:

On a Nunnery.

—— 'A fair young maiden, scarce fourteen,
The sweetest flower in Cythera's field,
Cropt from the pleasures of the fruitful earth,
And strangely metamorphos'd to a Nun.' Act I.

The commencement of the 2d Act has some force of expression. Barabas is approaching the window, whence his daughter Abigail has agreed to throw his treasures to him at the appointed hour of night.

'Enter Barabas, with a light.

'Thus, like the sad presaging raven, that tolls
The sick man's passport in her hollow beak,
And in the shadow of the silent night
Doth shake contagion from her sable wings,
Vex'd and tormented hastens poor Barabas
With fatal curses towards these Christians.
Th' uncertain pleasures of swift-footed Time
Have ta'en their flight and left me in despair,
And of my former riches rests no more
But bare rememb'rance; like a soldier's scar,
That has no further comfort for his maim.
Oh! thou, that with a fiery pillar led'st the sons
Of Israel through the dismal shades,
Light Abraham's offspring, and direct the hand
Of Abigail this night, or let the day
Turn to eternal darkness after this.
No sleep can fasten on my watchful eyes,
Nor quiet enter my distemper'd thoughts,
'Till I have answer of my Abigail.'

We should find it difficult to extract much more that is worthy of attention.

The editor has prefaced the play with a rambling unconnected tirade on the bad, but very improveable, government of Malta. He is particularly severe on the general manner of administering the civil law in that island, but gives high praise to *the Vice-Admiralty Court.* —He thinks that we ought to manage the Maltese better, for our own sakes:—but what he means by the following sentences, *shrewd* as our guesses may be, we cannot venture to decide:

'Shall the policy be now timid in governing them, and in order to tranquillize them, give them more than common privileges? Walk round the works of their improved Anglo-fortifications! see your artillery-men dragging and labouring by the sweat of their brow, slaving for ingratitude 001, 02, 03, 04, 05, 06, 07! At seven years old, a child is sent to school; 08, 09, 010, they are confirmed in the study of the law, or their church discipline; the numbers in both are intolerable; confined to so small an island, who live upon their untaught litigious fraternity, so by this period 011 and 07 are 018. Two-thirds of the population have grown up (under a powerful protection) to manhood, 20,000 mariners in Malta.'

With regard to the author's sanguine ideas about Malta becoming a second Venice, "*Alter erit tum Tiphys,*" &c. &c.

Art. 16. *Carlton House Fete; or, the Disappointed Bard;* in a Series of Elegies; to which is added *Curiosity in Rags*, an Elegy. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. Walker.

From the long silence of this facetious Bard, it may almost be matter of information to many of our readers that he yet lives to laugh, and laughs to live. His Muse is still as playful as a kitten, and sports more wit on the Carlton House Fête than was produced at it by all the fine company present. At his commencement, however, P. P. is rather unfortunate in his chronology, sending *the son of Jesse* to the Babylonish captivity: but the anachronism does not destroy his pleasantry. He affects disappointment at not being invited to the Prince's Fete, and, in what he terms 'a long string of *sharps*' makes out a *lamentable* case of keen hopes and of nettling mortification:

'Sharp as the pining maid expects the Post,
That brings epistle full of love-sick-sighs;
Or as the dog in seeming slumber lost,
Who slily winks to snap the teasing flies:

'Sharp as amid the fields of air a kite,
In hopes of feasting on a barn-door fowl;
Or as for mice, amid the dusky night,
O'er hill and dale the solitary owl:

'Sharp as the bailiff for a hiding debtor:
Or as the hard churchwarden on the poor;
Or bilious critic on a word, or letter,
To scalp his victim author o'er and o'er:

'Sharp as an Epicure upon the haunch,
His two eyes jealous of the fav'rite fat;
Or on the turtle, to enlarge his paunch,
With thrice the quantity would fill a hat:

'Sharp as the Bank upon a doubtful note,
Or hungry Frenchmen for a limb of frog;
Or Borough-monger for a casting vote,
Intent to sell poor Freedom like a hog:

'Sharp as a trading Justice for a Bible,
To give the oath, no matter false or true;
Or dread Sir Vinegar to seize a libel,
And strike th' offending dog with vengeance due:

'Sharp as Sir Vinegar, who look'd in vain
To shove his bottom into Mansfield's place;
Or as Jack Ketch surveys the felon train,
In hope of necks to meet his rope's embrace:

'Sharp as Lord Puzzle, for his office fee,
To keep his poverty-struck house, so poor;
Where none, my Lord and Lady Puzzle see,
Save keen Economy, who bolts the door:

'Sharp as our Alexander, gallant York,
Look'd out for poor Sir David's resignation;

Who now, (for merit miracles can work,)
  O'er Slander triumphs, and resumes his station:

'Sharp as Marcellus for the rapt'rous hour
  That yields the Dame, whom every charm adorns;
When kind Cornutus takes his prudent tour,
  And calmly in his pocket puts his horns;

'Exulting thus, in language rather coarse;
  "What's wife to honours? — stuff, beneath my care?
Make me, ye gods, but Master of the *Horse;*
  The dev'l may be the Master of my *Mare;*"

'So sharp I listen'd, yea with full stretch'd ear,
  To ev'ry knock, no matter soft or hard;
At once in Fancy's eye, I saw appear
  A Royal compliment to ME the BARD.

'Said I, "if Sheridan a fav'rite be,
  The *moral* Mentor of the Princely mind;
Some compliment will come to *moral* ME!
  The lyric *moralist* must favour find."

'Yes, to myself I whisper'd, (not in joke,)
  At Carlton House, I sure shall eat, and quaff;
Although not cheek by jowl with Royal folk,
  Yet under canvas with the *canvas Raff;*"

'*Raff*, that we Britons with our freedom trust;
  Yet now consider'd as mere reptile things;
Raff that can form a Monarch from the dust;
  Raff that confers a MAJESTY on Kings.'

Here P. P. discovers that vein of satire and that originality of fancy which distinguish his Muse: but, though his powers of song are still vigorous, and every circumstance that occured at the Gala, on which he could satirically animadvert, is introduced, — not forgetting the gudgeons which in order to produce a lively effect floated with their white bellies out of water, in the capacious stream, *nine inches wide*, which ran down the middle of the principal table, — the whole is too much spun out, and the Bard flags before he comes to the conclusion.

MEDICAL.

Art. 17. *Pharmacopœiarum Collegiorum regalium Londini, Edinburgi, and Eblanæ, Conspectus medicus; virtutes, doses, et morbos quibus utuntur medicamenta et præparata ostendens.* Edvard. G. Clarke, M. D. &c. &c. Auctore. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Cox. 1810.

This little volume may be considered as not without its value, since it gives us in one view, and in a commodious form, the corresponding preparations of the three British colleges. The doses that are annexed to each article appear to be such as are sanctioned by the best authorities; and we have nothing specific to object to the account that is given of their virtues, and of the diseases in which they are to be employed; although any information that can be comprized in a line or two is necessarily so general, as to be of very little use.

In so small a work, we might have expected that every attention would have been paid to accuracy: but in this respect we have been disappointed. The typographical errors are numerous; and we have observed a few of a more important kind. The apology which is offered in the preface is by no means satisfactory, and only proves that the author has sent out his work into the world knowing that it was in an imperfect state.

Art. 18. *Practical Remarks on Insanity;* to which is added, a Commentary on the Dissection of the Brains of Maniacs; with some Account of Diseases incident to the Insane. By B. Crowther, Surgeon to Bridewell and Bethlem Hospitals, &c. 8vo. pp. 130. 5s. Boards. Underwood. 1811.

The author of this treatise assures us, in more places than one, that he has little or nothing new to offer on the subject of insanity; and, on perusing his work, we must do him the justice to say that his opinion appears to be well founded. We cannot therefore but commend his candor in so very fairly stating his deficiencies: but we are at a loss to know why, under these circumstances, he determined on appearing before the public. The most correct motive for authorship is the desire of communicating knowlege; a second, which is pardonable, although less commendable, is the desire of literary fame; a third motive, of a very different aspect, arises from feelings of professional jealousy or personal hostility. We are not sufficiently acquainted with the politics of Bethlem Hospital to offer more than a surmise on this subject: but circumstances attend this work which bear a suspicious aspect. Mr. Crowther may be a skilful surgeon, and an accurate observer of those occurrences which fall within the immediate provinces of his profession: but he manifests a boldness of decision on the subject of controverted facts and opinions, which does not increase our respect for his talents as a medical philosopher; especially as he does not display either that cool judgment, or that extensive erudition, which should enable him to decide on questions which have been left in doubt by some of the most learned and judicious men of modern times.

Mr. C. determines, in a very summary manner, that insanity is not attended with nor caused by any organic affection of the brain: but he offers no new arguments for this conclusion. He indeed conceives that it is a point of no importance whether the brain be primarily affected or not; an idea which, we very confidently maintain, is a sufficient proof of Mr. Crowther's unfitness for discussing the subject on which he treats. Cullen's opinion, to which he refers as substantiating his own, is delivered with that candid caution which is always found in the writings of this great physician, and for all Cullen's opinions we ought to feel respect: but the disease in question is one on which many valuable works have been published since the appearance of the "First Lines;" and on which we consider ourselves as having obtained some information, of which our immediate predecessors were not in possession.

The observations of the present author on points of a practical nature are delivered with the same degree of rashness with those that refer to questions of a more speculative kind. We will quote a part of the section 'on vomits,' which may serve to convey an idea at once of the philosophy, the science, and the style of Mr. Crowther:

'I embrace the consideration of this subject, to settle the discordant opinions of writers, as to the propriety of giving emetics in cases of madness.

'In this investigation I feel a peculiar delicacy, having pledged myself to avoid personality, and hitherto, it is hoped, I have adhered to that determination.

'But let me ask, is it any reason that, because the physician of one insane hospital declines the employment of any particular method of treatment, that another belonging to a similar establishment should deny himself the adoption of a plan, which his progenitors have exercised with advantage? Every intelligent reader will give his own answer to this question.

'From my own personal knowlege, I state, that vomits have their use; for the servants of Bethlem have repeatedly told me of the quantity of phlegm, with other offensive matters, which have been evacuated by them; in a degree that really excited their astonishment.

'I will now pourtray a character of a maniac to my reader's mind. Let him view one reduced in health, of emaciated form, the eyes shedding tears, although the organs of sight be unimpaired, and the palpebræ in a healthy state.

'To these symptoms, I add the snivelling condition of the nostrils, and the saliva flowing from the mouth, I ask my reader what remedies he would propose under such circumstances.

'It is presumption in me to give even an opinion: but would the medical man employ the lancet in these cases? I think not: if he agrees with me, then what more suitable plan could he adopt than that of emetics?'

Mr. C. concludes by giving a strong testimony in favour of emetics, from Drs. Monro, Cox, and Halloran. The merest tyro in medicine must perceive that the author does not make good his pretensions; if he knew nothing more about the effects of emetics than what the servants of Bethlem told him, he should not have given an opinion about them; much less, in the same sentence, have spoken of his 'own personal knowlege.' Even if he had himself seen the 'phlegm and other offensive matters which have been evacuated by them,' it would not have proved that emetics were of any advantage in curing insanity.—It is to such vain pretensions, without any real foundation of knowlege, that medicine owes its imperfect state; and it will never hold its proper rank among the sciences, until those persons alone write books who are qualified to give information.

POLITICS.

Art. 19. *An Address to the British Nation*, on the accession of the Prince Regent to power. By Hugo Arnot, Esq. 8vo. pp. 32. 2s. Sherwood and Co.

Mr. Arnot can scarcely build a claim on his writings to the favour of kings or princes, since, in reviewing the leading transactions of the present reign, he appears to be out of humour with almost all of them. Coming down to the events of the present day, he exposes the contrast between our actual proceedings in Sicily and the whole of our former interference in European politics since 1792. In other countries, our object has been to uphold established governments against the people; while, in that, and in that only, have we ventured to take the side of liberality against prejudice and tyranny. At the same time, we are, in his opinion, weakly temporizing with the insurgents of Buenos Ayres, when we ought at once to acknowlege their title to independence.— Our embarrassments in regard to Ireland and America are next discussed, but with no particular force or novelty of observation. From these ungracious subjects, Mr. Arnot proceeds to the still more alarming topics of riots among our manufacturers, and depreciation in our currency. The personal conduct of the Regent, and his repeated pledges to act on the principles of Mr. Fox, are next brought under review; and referring to the king's speech on his accession, and contrasting its delineations with the subsequent policy of his reign, the author appears to insinuate, with an air of prophetic shrewdness, the recurrence of similar inconsistency under our present ruler.

This little tract is not destitute of well founded observation: but it possesses only a small share of originality, and is written in a quaint and peculiar strain.

LAW.

Art. 20. *Report of the Proceedings at the General Quarter Sessions of the Peace for the County of Berks,* held at Reading, Jan. 16, 1811, on the Appeal of William Kent, against a Conviction of William Henry Price, Esq. in the Penalty of 20l. *for teaching and praying in a Meeting, or Conventicle, held in an uninhabited House, in other Manner than according to the Liturgy of the Church of England, where five Persons or more were present.* Taken in Short-hand by Mr. W. B. Gurney. 8vo. pp. 103. Sold by the Law Booksellers.

Well may the Methodists exult in the publication of these miserable proceedings against William Kent; and well is it for the community that, on the removal of them by *Certiorari,* into the Court of King's Bench, that court *ordered them to be quashed.* Poor William Kent's prosecutors (it should seem that they would be persecutors, were it not for the liberal spirit of the times,) make a wretched and ridiculous figure; and the Earl of Randor, who sat on the bench, does not appear in this instance to be "a second Daniel come to judgment." We wonder that his Lordship, instead of offering the singular opinion that "a man who reads an address to the Supreme Being in a congregation *preaches,*" did not, on hearing the contemptible and paltry evidence adduced against Kent, rise up with indignation, and say, "We will proceed no further in this business." Two evidences are called; the first deposes that Kent said 'that he did not care for Man or Devil;' and the second, that Kent uttered the words *Damn* and

Curiosity, but could not tell what went before or after them. On the strength of this evidence, Kent was fined in the penalty of twenty pounds, which was levied on him by distress: but which, in consequence of the decision of the Court of King's Bench, has since been returned by the convicting magistrate. Mr. Gleed, the Counsel for Kent, acquitted himself with much ability; and we were astonished that his arguments made no impression on the Bench and on the Jury.

Such Reports as this ought to be published, in order to shame mankind from similar proceedings. We may reason with weak minds, we may endeavour to laugh them out of their absurdities, or we may try to dissuade others from following them, but we should not endeavour to crush them by arming obsolete statutes against them. Kent and a few of his neighbours were praying *extempore* and singing psalms, and for this he is dragged into Court. Would it not have been wiser to have followed the advice of Gamaliel, "*Let them alone.*" Persecution for religion never convinces the persecuted: but it often gives them consequence in the eyes of the multitude, who are always ready to side with and take the part of those who, for the sake of conscience, are harassed with pains and penalties. Mr. Kent the baker may be a very zealous Methodist, and may prefer extemporaneous devotion to prescribed forms of prayer: but he may also be, and he probably is, (for no impeachment of his moral character was attempted) a loyal, virtuous, and useful member of society. Ought such a man to have been fined, on the deposition of persons who scarcely knew the meaning of words, and could not repeat what they heard? Surely, these proceedings are a disgrace to the County of Berks: but, thanks to the Court of King's Bench, not to Great Britain.

Art. 21. *A Report of the Trial of Edward Sheridan, M.D.*, upon an Indictment for a Misdemeanour at the Bar of the King's Bench, on Thursday and Friday, 21st and 22d Nov. 1811. By John P. Hatchell, Esq., Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 132. 4s. Dublin printed; London, Longman and Co.

Though an Irish trial evidently possesses less interest for us than for our fellow-subjects on the western side of St. George's Channel, several points in the present publication may claim a share of our attention. The indictment charged Dr. Sheridan with being present at a Catholic meeting on 11th July last, and with acting in the nomination of a Committee, professedly for the purpose of petitioning, but "to the great encouragement of riot, tumult, and disorder," &c. — No denial was attempted in regard to the fact of participating in the business of the meeting, but the charge of disloyalty was strongly resisted, and called forth all the eloquence of the Traverser's Counsel, Mr. Burrows and Mr. Goold. The speeches on the side of the Crown by the Attorney and Solicitor General, if less remarkable for brilliancy, are intitled to attention; the former for the clear view of Catholic disabilities which was exhibited in the opening of the case; the latter for the close reasoning displayed in reply to the animated and persuasive addresses of the opposite pleaders. The Irish bar has long been noted for energetic declamation, and the present exhibition is by no means inferior to those of former years. — In looking over the

rymen, we could not help being struck with the number
Crown objected, viz. twenty-four, among which are
bers of highly respectable families. No insinuation is
either the loyalty or the morals of these inadmissible
if the sole objection consisted in a community of religion
and the defendant, can we conceive a stronger reason
ng invidious distinctions, and restoring to complete har-
eir protestant countrymen, so numerous a proportion of
bjects? — Notwithstanding all the pains bestowed by the
on the formation of the jury, the verdict was *Not*

MISCELLANEOUS.

ssays on Man, delineating his Intellectual and Moral
1. On the Acquisition of Self-knowlege. 2. On the
of Human Nature. 3. On the Symptoms of Intellec-
neracy. 4. On the Characteristics of Personal Honour.
as Finch. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Sherwood and Co.

tet in universalibus" is a maxim which was never more
exemplified than in the volume before us. Any person
only the opening sentences of Mr. Finch's several essays
ady to expect, if he forgot the above maxim, a com-
ew of the interesting subjects which form the titles of his
: but Mr. Finch is one of those metaphysical painters
in taking a bird's-eye prospect of the mind; one of the
who talk of our sensations and perceptions, of volition,

and his conduct regulated by the best of principles. His devotion gives a lustre to his other qualities, and by a gradual transformation assimilates his character to the supreme beauty. Who does not admire his excellence, and pronounce him honourable?'

‘ 2d. *Opinion*—Diffusive Benevolence.

‘ It will not be questioned, I presume, whether benevolence, usefulness, and uniform consistency, are requisite to beautify the human character. Qualified to promote the felicity of mankind around us, we should deem it our delight and honour to diminish the number of their prevailing sorrows, and add to the greatness of their present joys.

‘ Selfishness is evidently a disgraceful quality, and the man who lives in the world without usefulness cannot with propriety be deemed honourable. Society receives no benefit from his actions, nor has he any claim to its regards.'

‘ 3d. *Opinion.*—Unaffected Humility.

‘ Excellence of character is likewise distinguished by that genuine humility of mind, which is opposed to arrogance and vanity. *Every wise man must unquestionably form the best judgment of his own character,*' &c. &c.

" Why! what lenten stuff is this!" Yet the paradoxical assertion, about the necessity of self-knowlege inseparably belonging even to the wisest of men, is really more *piquant* than the generality of these tasteless truisms. — The sections on the ‘ Elements of Human Nature' are a labyrinth of language indeed;—and if vapid *verbiage* be a symptom of ‘ *Intellectual Degeneracy,*' we are sorry to say that it is here manifested. — Having discharged the painful part of our critical duty, we have to give this author the most unqualified praise for rectitude of principle and of feeling throughout his publication. The modesty of his preface, indeed, and the declared intention of his work, (as it appears in what he calls an ‘ *Inscription,*') namely the edification of the younger part of the community, combined with the merit above mentioned, would have totally disarmed our severity, were we at liberty to indulge our own inclinations to mercy, without regard to the justice which is demanded of us by the public.

Art. 23. *An Account of the British Settlement of Honduras;* being a View of its Commercial and Agricultural Resources, Soil, Climate, Natural History, &c. with Sketches of the Manners and Customs of the Mosquito Indians, preceded by the Journal of a Voyage to the Mosquito Shore. Illustrated by a Map. 2d Edition enlarged. By Captain Henderson, 44th Regiment. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Baldwin. 1811.

The present is an improved edition of a work which was reviewed by us in vol. lxiii. p. 390. In adverting on that occasion to the subordinate importance of Honduras as a settlement, we bore testimony to the proofs of liberal education and attentive observation which were afforded by Captain Henderson. He has embraced the opportunity of a new edition to incorporate some additional matter into his book, and to correct that deficiency of method which generally marks the early attempts of authors.

Art.

A narrative of the Hardships and Sufferings of several
ubjects who effected their Escape from Verdun. With an
, containing Observations on the Policy and Conduct of
e towards British Subjects. 8vo. pp. 120. 4s. Vernor
d.

objection to this little publication regards the title; it
be what it is not—a real narrative. The editor declares
e that he received the materials from two gentlemen who
scape from France, but he takes care to station these
India; and he conceals their names, in order that, if
hould attach to the publication, it may fall on him. Now,
es of all who have escaped are known to the French
and moreover, as gentlemen in India are tolerably well
parte's reach, we see no reason for this scrupulous secrecy.
tle publication been ushered to the world as a tale, we
ave been disposed to speak unfavourably of it. It is
othing extravagant, and considerable interest is excited by
on of adventures. It is chiefly open to criticism as com-
non-place-allusions, and as omitting to give to the narra-
ue which would have been afforded by attention to geo-
scription. — The appendix communicates a variety of
on political topics; which are liable, in a great degree, to
want of novelty, but are temperate, and by no means de-
gment. They relate chiefly to the abuse of Bonaparte in
rints; to the aversion of the French nation to a renewal
ary scenes under any prospect whatsoever; to the unpo-

oddly, with a feast given by Abraham to celebrate the weaning of Isaac: then follows a description of Ishmael's wedding-dinner; which consisted, it seems, of a roasted lion, horse-flesh, and crocodile's flesh, with pelican's and cormorant's eggs, 'at which the countenances of those assembled expressed fullness of pleasure!'—The preservation of Ishmael in the wilderness is improperly attributed to Nehazi, an imaginary, or as Miss O'Keeffe might call him, a *figurate* personage. The names of Esau's wives are altered, and Jacob is drawn as a most pitiful character. — The similies are pompous, but seldom new, and some of the exclamations are almost ludicrous: such as that of Joseph when his brethren are about to murder him;—"Oh! do not kill me! God bless me! what wilt thou do?"—On the other hand, we think that the episode of Samalah is well imagined; the scene between Asenath and the starving family of Mecrenius affords a lesson against delay in charitable duties; and other parts of the narrative display some ingenuity.

Art. 26. *A View of the Jurisprudence of the Isle of Man*; with the History of its antient Constitution, legislative Government and extraordinary Privileges; together with the Practice of the Courts, &c. &c. By J. Johnson, Esq. 8vo. pp. 234. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

Mr. Johnson expresses his surprize that, in the present age of active inquiry, the peculiar constitution of the Isle of Man should be so little known. He regards it as a singular fact that, amid the various revolutions which have taken place in England, Scotland, and Ireland, this insulated spot should, although an appendage to the British crown, still retain its early constitution and laws. A compilation of these laws, and a history of the constitution, formed accordingly, in his opinion, a literary *desideratum*; and he employed a residence of some length in the Isle of Man, in attending the courts and collecting materials for the work. To those who study law, he trusts that his volume will be not only curious but useful: while to the public at large, it may at least have the interest of a relic of antiquity. He begins by an account of the authority of the Druids, and of the prerogatives possessed by the antient kings and lords of the island; which is followed by a history and exposition of the legislative government; by a description of the nature of Manks tenures, antient and modern, the titles by descent, marriage, purchase, &c.; by an account of the Manks penal law; of their courts of judicature and form of trial; of the rights and prerogatives of the Duke of Athol; and lastly of the ecclesiastical law. The larger half of the book, however, consists of an appendix, alphabetically arranged, and forming a tolerably comprehensive dictionary of law-terms currently used in the Isle of Man. The work is dedicated, appropriately enough, to the most puissant prince, John Duke of Athol, the *quondam* sovereign, and still the governor of the island.

We confess that we can hardly bring ourselves to consider the peculiar institutions of the Isle of Man as a subject of so much interest as it has appeared to Mr. Johnson; and we suspect that his bookseller's report will discover a disposition on the part of the public more alive to our cold calculation, than to the pleasing dreams of his imagination. Few persons out of the island will look for either entertainment or instruction in the jurisprudence of this spot; and we think that the portion of our journal, which we recently bestowed on Mr. Wood's account of it *, formed as great a portion of our room as, in justice to other demands, we can spare. The composition of Mr. Johnson's book appears to us quite equal to the subject; though to point out occasional errors of style, (such as p. 5. '*paucity* of Manks *history*') would prove no difficult task.

Art. 27. *The ruinous Tendency of Auctioneering*, and the Necessity of restraining it for the Benefit of Trade, demonstrated in a Letter to the Right Hon. Lord Bathurst, President of the Board of Trade. 8vo. pp. 51. 2s. 6d. Wilson.

This pamphlet might have been made a vehicle for curious information, had the author confined himself to facts and particulars, instead of launching out into vague generalities. The embarrassments of the times have led to a diminution of the regular business of shopkeepers, and to a correspondent increase of sales by auction: the necessities of the holders of merchandise often oblige them to send their goods to those markets at which they can be sold for ready money, at whatever reduction; and the concentration of that kind of business at the general receptacle, the Auction Mart, together with the increased activity of the auctioneers, have all co-operated to the same end. Of the goods exposed to sale, a great part is bought in by the auctioneer for the owner: but the biddings having served the purpose of ascertaining the value, a sale by private contract generally follows: so that in either case a certain portion is deducted from the business of the retail vender. Government, aware of the advantages possessed by the auctioneer, has imposed a heavy duty (five per cent.) on the amount of his transactions, and obliges him to render a regular account and payment to the Excise: but the present author, who knows no bounds in his effusion against this business, and the persons who exercise it, would unmercifully raise this duty to 20 per cent. He expatiates on the greater trouble and attention bestowed by the retail vender on his customers, and contrasts it with the abrupt treatment experienced at the auction-room; without considering that this very circumstance, which is in his eyes a hardship, will be the surest means of bringing back business to the retail dealer, as soon as circumstances have reduced the quantities of goods pushed off at present by auction.

It is well known that a manufacturer, after having made a certain quantity of any given article on a new pattern, can contrive to make more at a price considerably lower; and it was formerly a point of honour with him, after having supplied the merchant at the higher price, either to limit the quantity made to the demand, or to take care that any which was subsequently made should not be sold at an inferior rate. The auctioneering system, however, says the present writer, by concealing the quarter from which goods are supplied, tempts the manufacturer to make 20,000 pieces of an article of which only 10,000 have been commissioned, and renders him, in some degree, the rival of the man to whom he was indebted for the original order. Another great branch of auctioneering-business, in late years, has arisen from tottering traders, to whom the grand point is the acquisition of a little ready-money.

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* See Review, Vol. 66. N. S. p. 61.

Vehement as the author is against the practice of public sale, he admits that goods may be bought much lower in this way than in shops; and though auctioneers have not been, in any age, patterns of veracity, we can by no means agree in his outrageous charges against the whole profession. His observations on the sale of books, a topic with which we may be supposed to possess a little acquaintance, we have no hesitation in pronouncing to be greatly exaggerated. He is equally erroneous in his general declamations against parsimony, and in his exhortations to us all to live up to our incomes. The money laid up by the saving man is not, as he seems to think, lost to the productive capital of the country with which it never fails to mix, directly or indirectly, in the shape of loan or investment in the public funds. Moreover, parsimony has no such charms as to threaten to overspread the land; and this writer, as well as his brother pamphleteer, Mr. Spence, may safely take it for granted that the possessors of the largest incomes are at no loss to find the means of spending them. As to the subject of auctioneering, generally, we are disposed to regard it as sufficiently burdened with taxes. We cannot doubt that the liberty, which is so desirable for commercial transactions at large, is equally beneficial in that particular branch; and it is, perhaps, to be regretted, that any considerations should have induced government to interfere in burdening the disposal of goods in one way more than in another. Whatever may be, in some respects, the advantages of buying at public auction, the attendance required will suit only a particular class of persons—those who buy to sell again. The housekeeper, whose time should be devoted to his business, and who wants but little of an article at once, will always find his interest in dealing at a shop; where a most important reduction of price might be effected, if the practice of ready-money-payments could be generally introduced. These considerations shew that the situation of the shopkeeper stands in less need than this author imagines, of legislative support; and they point to the expediency of contemplating, in better times, a reduction of auction-duty, as an approximation to that system of equality which alone can insure the stablity of our commerce.

SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 28. *The Sin and Folly of Cruelty to Brute Animals.* By Thomas Moore. 8vo. 9d. Johnson and Co.

Dr. Hartley, in speaking of the dominion of man over brute-animals, observes that "we are in the place of God to them;" and this thought will excite in all well-regulated minds an attention to the conduct which we ought to observe towards them. On this subject, however, it is painful to reflect that, in the midst of great national refinement, as Mr. Moore remarks, a large portion of a country always remains in a state of barbarism, and that of course all endeavours to promote the exercise of humanity must be limited and partial. Yet, not discouraged by this reflection, Mr. M. nobly exerts himself in behalf of the inferior creation; and if servants and children will not read this sermon, parents and masters may be so impressed by it as to inculcate its substance with an authority which must not be resisted. Perhaps the argument of the discourse is in one part carried too far: but we would recommend to especial attention that portion of it, which is derived from the claim which the inferior creatures have on our gratitude. They are intitled to humanity on the score of their subserviency to our use and comfort; and, as Mr. M. farther adds, 'humanity to brutes is a constant companion of real benevolence to man.'

CORRESPONDENCE.

'*An Old Friend*' may be assured that we shall never depart from nor compromize those principles, either religious or political, which he says have so long obtained for our work his perusal and approbation. He does us no more than justice in supposing that, while we advocate the claims of our Catholic brethren to an equal participation of civil privileges, we are actuated only by an adherence to the grand maxims of toleration, and by a perfect conviction that no danger can result from the operation of them in this instance. The baneful tenets and practices of the Catholic religion, and the horrible application of them when united with political dominion which past ages have witnessed, can have no steadier and more deadly foes than they have ever had in us: but we can see no grounds for fearing the influence of Popery in these days, and in this empire; while the mischiefs of an exclusive system, especially in our sister-island, have long been apparent, and daily grow in magnitude.

We shall inquire respecting the works mentioned by '*an Old Subscriber*.' The *Sermons* we had apprehended to be only a collection of discourses formerly published: but we will ascertain this matter.

J. M.'s volume is *sub judice*: but he knows little of the number of publications which call for our notice, if he considers the lapse of four months as a long period for us to be silent respecting a small collection of Poems.

⁂ The APPENDIX to this volume of the Review will be published on the 1st of June, with the Number for May.

☞ Our readers are requested to correct the following errors in the last Review. In p. 264. l. 9. from the bottom, the word *hendecasyllables* was by some strange accident used instead of *anapæsts*. Between pp. 273. and 275. the intermediate page is misprinted 286. instead of 274.—P. 278. l. 4. for 24. r. 54.—P. 280. l. 19. the words κατα πλασματος should be united: Ib. l. 25. for γεωμετρειας, r. γεωμετριας; and in the next line, for 'Plut.' r. *Plat.*—P. 286. note†, l. 11—12. read, *Hence appears the impropriety of calling*, &c.; the contrary assertion being occasioned by the carelessness of a transcriber.

THE
APPENDIX
TO THE
SIXTY-SEVENTH VOLUME
OF THE
MONTHLY REVIEW
ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Tableau Historique*, &c.; *i. e.* An Historical View of the War of the French Revolution, from the Commencement of Hostilities in 1792 to the End of the Year 1794; with a general Introduction, explanatory of the defensive Means of France in 1792, and of the State of the French Army from the Reign of Henry IV. to the End of 1806:—accompanied by a Military Atlas, or Collection of Maps and Plans of the principal Actions in the Revolutionary War; and a Chronological Table of the various Occurrences of the Years 1792, 1793, 1794. 3 Vols. 4to. pp. 987. Paris. 1808. Imported by Dulau, London. Price 5l.

THIS is one of the many publications which have lately issued from the productive work-shop of Messrs. *Treuttell* and *Würtz* of Paris; and we should be induced to entertain no small share of respect for these indefatigable booksellers, were the labours of their literary friends in general characterized by such merits as distinguish the present work. The author has chosen to conceal his name; in which precaution, writing as he has done so largely concerning living characters, he probably acted judiciously, though the evident moderation of his remarks could scarcely fail to justify him in the opinion of all considerate readers. He deals in no invective, and seems desirous at the same time to avoid all interested or exaggerated encomiums. He apprizes us, in the outset, that he found it a task of vast

give a consistent and accurate shape to the vehement
ed reports which were rendered to the Convention,
the eventful operations of the early part of the war:
pears intitled to the credit of great industry in re-
d he had, moreover, the good fortune (preface, p. 20.)
g materials for a part of his detail made ready to
y the previous labours of a General officer. A large
of the historical documents for these years consists
ers, not so much of the Generals, as of the "repre-
in mission;" men who were usually unacquainted
ary affairs, and ill fitted, by the enthusiasm to which
excited, to draw a correct picture of the events
sed around them. Amid this mass of incoherent
gerated reports, it is with pleasure that we see re-
least one honourable exception;—that of M. *Delbrel*,
om the department of the Lot to the Convention, who
oyed in 1793 at the head quarters of the army of the
d in 1794 at those of the army of the Eastern Py-
The communications transmitted by this functionary
found to stand the severest scrutiny; and his per-
duct is known to have been distinguished, in the
he greatest phrenzy, by an exemplary attachment to
d humanity.

st volume of this extensive publication consists of to have been made, as well for the purpose of abridging the reader's labour, as for that of rescuing the publisher from the grievous charge of book-making.

In turning to the narrative of the progressive augmentation of the French force since the reign of Henry IV., we find a most remarkable contrast between the military establishment of those days and of our own. In peace, Henry's whole army, horse and foot, scarcely exceeded 10,000 men; and his strongest garrison, that of Calais, amounted only to 400 men. The expences of his war-department, including the ordnance, the fortifications, and a great many half-pay allowances, were only half a million sterling annually. During twelve years, from 1598 to 1610, France was blessed with peace and a paternal government. In the last of these years, the claims of the House of Austria on the dutchies of Clêves and Juliers induced Henry to form a strong coalition against that power, and to put forth all the forces of his kingdom. His plan of operations was founded on an estimate of 50,000 men acting in the service of France, of whom the half only were to be natives of that kingdom: the rest consisting of Swiss and Germans, among both of whom a military spirit was, in those days, much more general than among the French. His treasury, owing to the vigilance and activity of *Sully*, was in a highly respectable condition; containing a million and a half sterling in specie, and an equal sum in securities which could be realized at a short notice. When, therefore, to these financial means we add the ample stores in his arsenals, it may fairly be pronounced that the House of Austria was saved, by his death, from one of the most dangerous attacks by which she has ever been threatened.—During a part of the reign of Louis XIII., the numbers of the army in peace were as moderate as under Henry: but after 1620 they were increased; and the yearly expence advanced, partly from inferior management, partly from the fall in the value of money, to somewhat more than a million sterling. The participation of France in the war which was begun in Germany by Gustavus Adolphus led, under the able administration of *Richelieu*, to a progressive augmentation of the military establishment; and in 1640 it was computed that she had in arms 100,000 men: the expences of the war also having risen to four millions sterling per annum. During the war with Spain, which began in the minority of Louis XIV., and was terminated by the peace of the Pyrenées in 1659, the military force of France appears to have been nearly 100,000 men; and at the peace, the young king, already full of ambitious projects, kept on foot 70,000 men, and took secret measures for adding to their numbers. His invasion of

Holland in 1672 having brought both Spain and Germany against him, he was necessitated, in a war of seven years, to strain every nerve for the augmentation of his army, and carried the total of his military force to the unprecedented number of 170,000 men. His successive encroachments, also, having led to the formation of a general coalition against him in 1687, by the famous league of Augsburg, the power of France was exerted to the utmost to resist the joint efforts of Germany, Spain, England, and Holland. It was then that the adoption of the funding system was made subservient to the accumulation of military force; and that the armies of the leading powers of Europe were carried to a magnitude formerly unknown. Large as the establishment of France had been in the preceding war, it now became doubled, and amounted, at the peace of Ryswick, to between 3 and 400,000 men. Such also were its numbers during the long and unfortunate war of 1701: but, after the peace of Utrecht, a great reduction took place. The short war of 1733 was carried on with 250,000 men; and it was not till the campaign of Marshal *Saxe*, that numbers equal to those of the latter time of Louis XIV. were again called into action. The wars of 1756 and 1777 were not of a nature to require the assemblage of such mighty masses; and accordingly the year 1793 arrived, before France once more counted 400,000 of her citizens in arms.

We now reach the epoch at which France was enabled, by dint of overwhelming force, to repel the combined attacks of all her neighbours, and to carry invasion into the heart of their territories. The numbers, by which these extraordinary successes were obtained, have been so differently represented, that we opened with curiosity a table containing a specific enumeration of the several armies of the republic from 1792 to 1797. About the time of the battle of Jemappes, (November 1792,) the whole force of the Republic was only 140,000 men, of whom 50,000 were in Belgium. In December and January, they received considerable augmentations; and the levy of 300,000 men, ordered by the Convention in February, soon brought them to a formidable amount. Numbers were thus supplied in abundance to pursue the contest, on the destructive plan of killing man for man; or on the still more fatal expedient of aiming to carry every thing by an irresistible mass. Such was the policy adopted by the French government in January 1793. Several months elapsed, however, before the levies were fit for service, and the repulse of the Duke of York from Dunkirk was their first success of importance. The Army of the North, or, in other words, the French force acting in Flanders, amounted at that time (September 1793) to 120,000 men. Next came the grand levy by requisition, which soon swelled the ranks of the battalions, and sent forth men who became fit for action before the season for commencing operations in 1794. *Pichegru* was now at the head of the Flanders army, though greatly controuled by the commissaries of the Convention. It is difficult to ascertain the force engaged in particular actions, but the numbers at *Pichegru's* disposal amounted in the spring of 1794 to 200,000 men, and were decreased in summer only for the purpose of reinforcing *Jourdan's* army, better known by the designation of "Sambre and Meuse." After the fall of Holland, a pause took place in military operations: but in September 1795 the French crossed the Rhine and invaded Germany with two powerful armies, under the separate commands of *Pichegru* and *Jourdan*. It was then that the talents of *Clairfait* shone forth, and enabled him, by the concentration of his troops, to obtain signal advantages over both those commanders. His plan was to oppose to them a mass of force superior to either when acting separately, though it would have been much inferior if resisted by their united numbers. Beginning with *Jourdan*, whose lot it has generally been to be foremost in defeat, he drove him back with great loss; and, after having expelled a strong corps of French from the intrenched camp at Mentz, he poured on *Pichegru* a force with which all the judgment of that General and all the attachment of his companions in arms were unable to cope. In this short but memorable campaign, we may compute *Jourdan's* army to have been between 90,000 and 100,000 men, and that of *Pichegru* about 80,000. Next summer, *Jourdan* again crossed the Rhine, and penetrated into Franconia at the head of 90,000 men, to experience a second and more disastrous defeat at the hands of the Archduke Charles. *Moreau* had now superseded *Pichegru*; and the army with which he advanced into Bavaria, and subsequently effected his well known retreat, was 80,000 strong.

We come next to the question of the force with which *Bonaparte* was enabled to accomplish his signal successes in the campaign of 1796. He fought his first series of battles with 60,000 men; and to that number we find his army regularly kept, the *éclat* of his triumphs inducing the Directory to send him reinforcements which fully made up for his enormous losses. Towards the autumn of that year, sickness had thinned his ranks, and his efficient troops were below 50,000 when he fought the obstinate battle of Arcola: — but on opening the next campaign, and advancing into Austria, he found himself, by the arrival of 30,000 men from the Rhine, as well as by other supplies, at the head of 100,000 men; a force which empowered him to compel the Austrians to fly, and to end the war by the treaty of Leoben. Meanwhile, *Moreau* and *Hoche*, were advancing from the Rhine with their respective armies; and it is remarkable that, of the two, the force of *Moreau* was now the larger, with the view probably of its more immediate co-operation with *Bonaparte*. It amounted to 75,000; while that of *Hoche*, or, in other words, that of the Sambre and Meuse, was reduced, by the detachments to Italy, to 55,000 men.—If from these lists of separate armies we turn our eye to the total military force of the Republic, we find that it was carried, in the summer of 1793, to half a million of men actually serving in the field; that in the spring of 1794 it exceeded the number of 700,000; and that in the autumn of that year, the season of its greatest amount, it consisted of 750,000 men in the field, with nearly 400,000 in reserve or in sick quarters. After this, it underwent a progressive diminution; and, from the autumn of 1795, the force in the field fell below half a million.

General *Servan* is a favourite character with the author of this work. Without being much known as a commander of armies, few men have contributed more effectually by official labour to call forth the military resources of his country. He is a veteran in these matters; having published, as far back as the year 1780, the well-known work, *Le Soldat citoyen*; and having been the author of many articles on tactics in the *Encyclopédie Méthodique*. He is distinguished for simplicity of habits, unwearied application, and a most extensive knowlege of his profession. In a great measure, it was to his efforts that France was indebted for those speedy levies in the autumn of 1792 which drove the Prussians from her territory, and enabled *Dumouriez* to act offensively in Flanders; and had his advice been followed, by forming near Paris a camp of 20,000 men, drawn from the departments, and officered by the King, the horrors of September 1792, and a part of the subsequent murders by the Jacobins, would, in all probability, have been prevented.

Next to *Servan*, *Bernadotte* was one of the most distinguished of the French ministers of war. He entered on office in the summer of 1799, in the midst of difficulty and disasters: but so speedily may the resources of France be rendered operative, that by the month of September her armies were reinforced, and in a condition to act offensively. In 1803, a final separation of the duties of war-minister took place; the direction of the troops, their promotion, destination, and other functions of the commander in chief, remaining with *Berthier*, while to General *Dejean* was committed the administrative or accountant part of the duty, by which is meant the whole army-expenditure.

In reading of such enormous armies, we are naturally led to inquire by what means it was possible to find pay and subsistence for them. Looking back to the wasteful contests of Louis XIV., we perceive that his military expenditure amounted, in the great war of 1688, to six millions sterling annually, and, in his unfortunate struggle with Marlborough, to eight and even nine millions; sums of great consequence, when the remarkable difference in the price of commodities is taken into account. To compute the expences of the French government in the enthusiastic years of 1793 and 1794, when assignats were universally current, would baffle all ordinary calculation; and it is not till 1799 that we are enabled to form any correct idea of their amount. The pay of the army was then fixed at nearly five millions sterling *per annum*; and the other expences, exclusive of ordnance, were computed at nine millions more. *Bonaparte's* peace-establishment (1802, 1803,) was between 300 and 400,000 men; and his military expenditure seems (Vol. i. p. 398.) to have amounted to nearly the fourteen millions sterling of 1799. During war, he has found means to maintain so large a proportion of his army in foreign states, that his disbursements would scarcely have been greater, had he not immersed himself in an abyss of expence by his ill-fated quarrel with Spain. His effective force, after the winter-campaign of 1805, may be thus stated:

Imperial guard		7,000
Infantry of the line		260,000
Light infantry		60,000
Irregular infantry		12,000
Cavalry.	Cuirassiers	7,000
	Dragoons	25,000
	Chasseurs	15,000
	Hussars	8,000
Artillery.	Flying artillery	3,000
	Heavy artillery	14,000
	Battalions of the train	8,000
Engineers, sappers, miners, &c.		5,500
Hanoverian legion		1,200
Stationed as guards along the coast		12,000
	Total	387,700

If we compute *Bonaparte's* present force, exclusive of his German allies, at 450,000 effective men, we shall probably not be far from the truth.

To trace the history of the pay and allowances of the French is a matter of some complexity, since various alterations were made at different epochs of war and peace. At present, the daily pay and food of the foot-soldier may be thus stated:

Pay	3¾d.
Bread, 24 oz. charged to him at	2¼
Soup-bread	¼
Proportion of general expence	1

making 7¼d. per day, or 11l. sterling a-year. When in the field, 1¾d. of the daily pay is kept back, and half a pound of butcher's meat, with vegetables, and an additional portion of bread, are given in lieu. Half a pound of meat has been allowed to French soldiers when in the field ever since the year 1690, and deducted from their pay, at the rate of 1½d. a day, which was the ordinary contract-price. Small as these allowances appear, the difference in the price of commodities makes them fully equal to double the sum in this country; and when we take into account the simple diet of Frenchmen, we shall find that, of the two establishments, the balance of comfort is on their side. A French dragoon's pay being nearly 5d. a day, besides allowances of food, his annual cost to the government is 13l. sterling, exclusive of his horse.

The civil war in la Vendée is represented in this work as extremely sanguinary, and as having cost the lives of more than one hundred thousand republicans. The insurgents were accustomed to assemble by signal from the wind-mills, and to disperse and resume their agricultural labours after the accomplishment of an expedition; so that any calculation of their numbers was a matter of great difficulty. The focus of insurrection was in a territory of three hundred square leagues, peopled by nearly three hundred thousand inhabitants; and the villages in which the first disorders broke out are still mentioned, with the names of the individuals (chiefly smugglers and game-keepers) who distinguished themselves as leaders. Extending afterward along the whole tract from Nantes to Rochelle, the insurrection prevailed over a country of which the frontier, assuming a semi-circular shape, occupied nearly a hundred leagues. The whole of this frontier became, from a very erroneous policy, the object of the attacks of the republicans; who, though they were able to gain ground on particular points, were incompetent to occupy the whole line, and generally found it necessary to evacuate in the course of a few days the territory which they had invaded. Moreover, being inexperienced in war, and under the guidance of fanatic deputies of the onvention, the whole scene was one of hideous and unavailing loodshed. Even the fields of battle, if the name of battle can e applied to such desultory encounters, are now in a great easure unknown: but with one remarkable exception, that of he "four roads," or the spot where the road from Rochelle to antes is intersected by that which leads from Angers to the ables d'Olonne. This point, situated in the middle of la endée, and calculated by its position for a speedy assemblage f insurgents from all quarters, proved fatal to various corps of epublicans, who ventured to advance to it, and were succes-ively assailed by surprize. — The original causes of the sanguinary insurrections of la Vendée are to be sought in the ignorance of the inhabitants. Protestants in religion, and wholly occupied in tillage and pasturage, they knew the revolution only by report, and were open to the influence of any rumours which the noblesse or the clergy chose to spread among them. Amid a population so disposed, the levies ordered by the Convention were not likely to be favourably received; and, as in that season of violence the least resistance to arbitrary power drew down the hand of vindictive tyranny, the Vendéans were soon exposed to scenes of oppression which roused their utmost indignation. The contest which then took place might truly be called a war of extermination; neither age nor sex being spared; castles, cottages, forests, cattle, furniture, all were subjected to indiscriminate devastation; and a finish was given to these sanguinary horrors with the drowning of multitudes in the Loire, by order of the infamous *Carrier*. Ill prepared as the Vendéans were for hostility, and inadequately as they were supported by England, the hatred inspired by these massacres kept alive the flame of insurrection for years; and the republicans became successful only when they had on the one hand learned to make their attacks with concentrated force, and were willing, on the other, to hold out the olive branch of peace. — It is of importance to distinguish the Vendéans from the Chouans, who inhabited the country to the north of the Loire, and were posterior in their rising; the first insurrection of the latter having been subsequent to the levy by requisition in the autumn of 1793.

Turning from this shocking scene of intestine massacre, and directing our attention to the detail of the war on the frontier, we find several very interesting remarks on the conduct of the operations and the character of the chiefs. When the allies entered the French territory in 1792, and the flight of *La Fayette* left his army in disorder, the government was greatly at a loss for a fit commander in chief. *Luckner*, the only one of their officers who had commanded large bodies of men, was superannuated; *Montesquiou's* fidelity to the republican cause was doubtful; *Biron* was brave and zealous, but of very limited experience; *Kellermann* was already charged with a command; and *Custine*, though an ardent republican, was so full of schemes as to inspire great distrust of his judgment. *Dumouriez*, therefore, appeared the only suitable person, and to him also serious objections might be made. His intriguing and faithless character, his boundless ambition, and his want of solid thought, all concurred to make the executive council pause, and offer the important charge, in the first place, to the Count *de Grimoard*. They knew this distinguished officer to be a confirmed royalist, but his honour and patriotism placed him above all suspicion. *Grimoard*, however, declined the command, but consented to prepare a plan of campaign, which was approved by the government, and formed the basis of their instructions to *Dumouriez*. A few weeks after this circumstance, the Prussian army found it necessary to evacuate the barren plains of Champagne; a retreat which has been attributed to mysterious causes, but which the writer of this work very properly ascribes to no other than the failure of provisions. At the same time, he admits that the Prussians were not pursued with activity; a forbearance probably originating in the hope of detaching Frederic William from his alliance with Austria.

The project of making the Austrian Netherlands the seat of war had been a favourite idea with *Dumouriez* for some time; and the reputation acquired by him in Champagne induced the government to accord with him in his views. This led speedily to the celebrated engagement of Jemappes; in which the Austrian force, amounting to somewhat more than 20,000 men, was commanded by the Duke of Saxe Teschen, and intrenched amid woods on the slope of a hill. Their artillery had thus a commanding position: but the French army was double in number, a superiority which enabled *Dumouriez* to make his attack along the whole line. Stationing himself in the centre, he intrusted the command of the right wing to *Beurnonville*, and that of the left to *Ferrand*, afterward well known for his defence of Valenciennes. It was mid-day (6th November) before the columns began to march. Passing, with inconsiderable loss, the open ground in front of the Austrian position, they encountered a vigorous resistance on approaching the wood. The fire of the enemy's artillery, of their soldiers in ambush, and a charge of some squadrons of cavalry issuing from the road through the wood, all concurred to shake the courage of the French: but their numbers, and the gallantry of their officers, eventually overcame every obstacle. After some hours of doubtful conflict; they pushed on in columns, and succeeded in forcing the enemy's intrenchments on the high ground. Such was the course of things in the centre: — in the right wing it was nearly similar, except that the Austrian cavalry had greater scope for action: but it was not numerous, and the French infantry had now seen enough of service to keep tolerably steady under a charge. The left wing, meanwhile, without succeeding in carrying the flank of the Austrian position, had marched round and got behind it; so that the Austrians were forced to retreat in all directions, and to seek refuge in Mons. Their loss consisted in thirteen pieces of cannon, and between 3 and 4000 men; while that of the French was, in all probability, considerably greater.—Such an attack was suited to the ardent impetuosity of the French, and, with their numerical superiority, could scarcely fail of success: but the judiciousness of the plan may well be questioned. Instead of alarming the enemy on one side, and making the real attack with an overpowering mass of force in another, the whole of the position was indiscriminately encountered. It is likewise tolerably clear that the Austrians might have been compelled to evacuate their position by manœuvring at a distance on their flanks: but this cautious course was not suited to the temper either of the French or of their leader.

If we are doubtful of *Dumouriez's* judgment on an occasion which formed the basis of his renown, much more may we be allowed to question it in the attempt on Holland, and in the management of the battle of Neerwinden. In France, where tactics are very little considered except by professional men, the loss of that battle is generally ascribed to the defeat of the left wing under General *Miranda*; but the author of this work states the matter very differently. For several days, a coolness had subsisted between *Dumouriez* and *Miranda*; and the latter received, (Vol. ii. p. 260.) at eleven o'clock in the forenoon, an order to lead on his wing (the left) to an attack of which no previous communication had been made to him. Surprized at this intimation, *Miranda* asked his commander whether he was aware of the enemy's strength. "I reckon them," says *Dumouriez*, "to be 52,000 strong, and we are 35,000." "And do you expect," replied *Miranda*, "to succeed in dislodging them from such a position?" To this no answer was given, and *Miranda* proceeded to execute his orders, in which he at first obtained a partial success, but he found it impracticable to drive the enemy from their ground. Retreat was then indispensable, and the present writer bestows considerable encomiums on the manner in which *Miranda* conducted it.

We were not a little curious to know in what style this author was disposed to speak of the Duke of York's generalship. He explains very clearly (Vol. ii. p.309.) the grand error of the allies in losing much precious time in the siege of fortifications, and particularly in dividing their force to attack Dunkirk, where the French had made an assemblage of troops, and possessed considerable means of defence. His Royal Highness, having under him the English, Dutch, Hanoverians, and Hessians, was the commander of a force of 50,000 men; superior, had it been kept together, to that of the French under *Houchard*, and capable, in all probability, of taking Dunkirk by storm:— but this force was divided, one part carrying on the siege under the Duke, while the other formed, at Hondschoote, a corps of observation under General *Freytag*. Though *Houchard* was no General, he could have very little hesitation in regard to the plan of operation, — it was merely to attack first the one part of the allied force, and then the other. He accordingly bore down (6th September 1793) on General *Freytag*'s division, and continued his attacks, straight forwards, for three days. On the first day, he obtained considerable success; on the second, his troops, fatigued and exhausted from want of provisions, made no progress: but on the third, having recruited their strength, and received a reinforcement, they finally drove the allies from Hondschoote. All this while, *Freytag's* division had *received no assistance from our larger corps stationed before Dunkirk,* who allowed themselves to be amused by attacks from the garrison. Hondschoote being abandoned, and Furnes, in the Duke of York's rear, being threatened, retreat became unavoidable; and it is said to have been conducted with as much precipitation as if a superior army had been at our heels, fifty pieces of cannon and a large quantity of baggage being left behind.

The battle of Fleurus (26th June 1794) has been very differently characterized in France by men of different parties. Having happened when the Jacobins were in the zenith of their power, and having been fought by an army under the controul of *St. Just* and *Lebas*, it was extolled beyond all bounds; especially as *Jourdan*, the commander, was too weak a character to become an object of jealousy, whatever reputation might be conferred on him. The fact was that the force, known by the name of the army of the Sambre and Meuse, having passed the former river on the 12th June, sat down before Charleroi: but the allies, under the Prince of Orange, having attacked them on the 16th, the French army gave way, with the exception of the left wing commanded by *Kleber*. On this as on other occasions, *Kleber*'s talents were counteracted by the mediocrity of his coadjutors, and he was obliged to follow *Jourdan* in his retreat. The allies, however, withdrawing after the demolition of the besieging works, *Jourdan* again passed the Sambre; and the celebrated engineer, *Marescot*, pushed the siege of Charleroi so rapidly as to compel it to capitulate in a few days. The Prince of Cobourg, unacquainted with its surrender, advanced with a large army to its relief, and made an attack along the whole of the French positions, on the 26th. The conflict was long and obstinate, and it is very clearly and impartially described in this work. The French fought with great spirit, and were, on several points, well commanded. *Marceau* and *Bernadotte*, at that time Generals of division, gave ample assurances of their future reputation; while, on the adverse side, *Beaulieu* and the Hungarian General, *Quosdanovich*, conducted themselves with equal vigour and ability. The action began at a very early hour, and lasted till five in the afternoon; by which time the French, though they frequently rallied and returned to the charge with shouts of "*this day we shall not retreat,*" were driven back along almost the whole extent of their line. *Kleber* and the corps around him alone stood firm: but, after the hour which we have mentioned, they were put to no farther test than their comrades, the Prince of Cobourg having received undoubted intelligence of the surrender of Charleroi, and having consequently issued orders for a general retreat. The conflict had been extremely sanguinary, and was, like most of the actions in this campaign, a series of insulated attacks, with no great share of general combination. Had *Clairfait* been at the head of the Austrians, it is probable that a few hours would have decided the fate of the engagement.

The narrative in each chapter of this history is followed by a few general observations from the author; which, without any elevation of style, are distinguished by evident marks of good sense. The Prince of Cobourg is held up to deserved ridicule, as well for his mis-management of particular engagements, as for the capital error of losing the summer of 1793 in sieges and indecisive movements. The five months which elapsed between the disorganization of the French army under *Dumouriez* in April, and the junction of the new levies in September, were, in truth, an invaluable period. Not that the most brilliant victories by an armed force could have produced the subjugation of a people, who were animated with the enthusiasm of liberty: but the horrors of the revolution might have been lessened, the duration of the contest have been abridged, and the French confined within their own territory. The allied courts, however, persisted in their old maxims; they chose to intrust their forces only to nobles and princes of the blood, and were thus the authors of the misery which subsequently overwhelmed Europe.

Of the French Generals, *Pichegru* is here always mentioned with a respect which does the author great credit, when we consider that the book was published after the death of that chief, and under a government which spared no pains to blacken his reputation. *Jourdan* is seldom praised, and as seldom censured, the blunders committed under his command being imputed to the headstrong interference of the "representatives in mission," or to the imperious and sometimes injudicious orders of the Committee of Public Safety. *Pichegru*, on taking the field in the spring of 1794, received from that body a positive mandate to "conquer;" and he was repeatedly forced, in the course of the campaign, to alter his plans in consequence of their authoritative communications. No mention is made of the part taken by *Carnot*, either in the civil administration of the army or in the plans of operation during 1793 and 1794; and, in general, it may be remarked that we meet with less delineation of character and of abstract reflection than might have been expected from the magnitude of the subject. The work altogether bears few of the striking characteristics of French composition. It is ushered in by a modest preface, describing it merely as a sketch for future historians; and the reports of the various actions are given with a degree of candour which has seldom distinguished the publications of our vaunting neighbours. The relative force of the allies is, on several occasions, over-rated, but evidently not with an intention to misrepresent. Neither has the author loaded his pages with any incense to his imperial master; whose name is never introduced unless when called forth by the course of the narrative.

The first of the three volumes is filled, as we have already mentioned, by the history of the French army, and by the official reports on the defence of the frontier. The whole of the second and a part of the third are occupied with the details of the three campaigns of 1792, 1793, and 1794: next comes a *coup d'œil* of the war in la Vendée; which is followed by a very long and elaborate catalogue, in the order of date, of the chief occurrences, civil and military, of the three years in question. To the whole is added a collection of maps and plans of battles, which are of the greatest use to those who take pleasure in studying military details, and in analyzing the causes of victory. The maps are thirteen in number, and represent the tracts of country which formed the principal scenes of operation; namely the Pyrenées, Piedmont, Flanders, and the borders of the ine. The plans exhibit the position of the contending :es in four of the principal engagements, Jemappes, Neer- iden, Hondschoote, and Fleurus. We have also a plan of ilon, and of the positions of the French when besieging it; well as of the encampment at Valmi in Champagne, in tember 1792. With regard to Toulon, the plan is well th insertion: but we must object to the length at which the iils of the siege and recapture are given in Vol. ii. p. 340. his as in the first volume, the author is led into prolixity n a desire to insert the communications of respectable men, hout a sufficient jealousy of the space which they occupy. reader, however, has no reason to complain of being at a to chuse his subject, for seldom has any work appeared with re complete tables of contents; indeed, they are so copious o indicate not only the general tenor of a chapter but the ure of each particular event, and may be read straight for- ds as an abridgment of the narrative. Nothing can be re useful in a book of multiplied details, than this *analyse onné* of its contents; and we are induced to think that hors would often find works of a different stamp improved the application of similar care and method in preparing an ex to their labours. Without being so ill-natured as to say t it would teach *them* more clearly the import of what they e written, we may be permitted to observe that it would terially reduce the labour of their *readers*, and would form, many cases, a great recommendation to the public. In the umes under review, the table of contents is so full and ex- it as to render an index unnecessary.

Our limits have not permitted us to make extracts from this lication: but the paper, of which the following is the sub- ace, was productive of such a determined plan of warfare, as have a particular claim to insertion. It is a memorial on the nparative force of France and the foreign powers, delivered the Executive Council at the end of January 1793, by a neral officer who was called from retirement to give his vice in that season of emergency:

> " War is already carried on by us against Austria, Prussia, and King of Sardinia: — it is soon expected to be declared against gland, Holland, and Spain. Adding to these powers the Ger- nic body, we shall find the whole of their military force amount to ,000 men; of which it may be taken for granted that the half, thereabouts, can be mustered in the field. To meet this formidable nament, we propose to bring into action 360,000 men; a third t of whom, however, must be recruits. A third is a large propor- n, and may deteriorate the whole; since the possession of mere rage will not compensate for the want of education in our officers, l of discipline in our men. It is probable, too, that our defi-

ciency in tents, provisions, and good hospitals, together with the frequency of engagements and of exposure to fatigue, will cause a prodigious loss of lives. It follows that France can look for durable success in such measures only as may prevent the necessity of forming armies almost entirely new at the beginning of each campaign. Her interest appears accordingly to demand that a very numerous army should be sent forth, without delay, and that it should be backed at home by a force sufficient to repair the effects of any disaster. Prudence, therefore, requires that means should be taken to make large levies, in that way which is the least burdensome to the country. Our mode of warfare should proceed on the principle of compensating for want of skill by superiority of number; that is, by directing as many men and as much artillery as may be possible on the points attacked, the Generals marching at the head of the columns to set the soldiers an example of determined courage. Our troops must be accustomed never to calculate the enemy's strength, but to rush forwards with their bayonets, without losing time in firing at a distance, or in attempting manœuvres with which, in their present state, they are quite unacquainted. This straight-forward-plan of fighting corresponds so much with our national fire and impetuosity, as to put our eventual success beyond the possibility of doubt."

This advice produced such conviction in the Council, as to make them exert all their influence with the Convention to procure a large levy; and on the 24th of February following, a decree was passed to raise 300,000 men.

We cannot conclude this article without regretting the enormous rate to which the difficulty of intercourse, and still more the disordered state of our exchange, have raised the price of foreign books. Such a work as this cannot fail to be acceptable to those who desire a plain and faithful report of the campaigns of 1792-1794: but *five pounds* form a serious demand on the purse of a critic, and, we fear, on that of a soldier.

Art. II. *Eudoxe*, &c.; *i. e.* Eudoxus. Dialogues on the Study of the Sciences, Letters, and Philosophy, by J. P. T. Deleuze. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1810. Imported by Deconchy. Price 1l. 4s.

The art of self-education often requires more attention than it receives, since many persons are reared without having become possessed of several of those acquirements, or accomplishments, which their eventual situation in life may render desirable. A grown gentleman does not like to be taught to dance, nor to draw, nor to construe Latin, nor to speak French. He would willingly apply himself in private to remedy his deficiencies, but, unless he can correct them unobserved, he will rather endeavour to hide them. That intrenchment, which is the policy of ignorance, will mostly pass for the reserve of de, and will purchase an escape from scorn at the cheaper ce of affection.

ľo such persons, books are always welcome, respecting the ans of attaining that current level of knowlege which circu- ɜs in good society, which is expected at the tables of opu- ce, and which is requisite in any liberal occupation. They also welcome to the newly married. Matrimony, indeed, great instructress of nations; because, with the purpose, or pretext, of learning to educate their children, parents do ch towards educating themselves. The dulness of unvary- society is in no way so well concealed, or *exorcized*, as by ling instruction to sit by the fire-side; and, since the most luring and faithful friendships grow out of common pur- ts and common amusements, the domestic virtues thus be- ne the fruit of sympathetic studies. It is one of the rewards a parent to remedy the idleness of his own adolescence; and elementary books, which are perused with a prospective w to the offspring, revive or implant whatever was deficient the early culture of the progenitors.

The object of M. Deleuze, in the work before us, is to ch the art of self-education; to indicate the elementary its which should be formed, and the elementary books ich should be procured, in order to prepare a French gen- nan for active or speculative utility, in those lines of life ich branch out of his natural career. This instruction is en in the form of dialogue. Eudoxus, a young Swiss, who l been sent to study at Göttingen, comes to pass the vaca- ı at the house of his guardian Aristus, who resides at neva. Eudoxus brings home the *neologous omniscience* of a rman student, equal to every thing, but adapted for nothing. istus, who possesses the practical good sense of age and observa- ı, endeavours to point out to his young friend the method of king a capital of talent bring in some interest of income; l he inforces the importance of minting knowlege into chmas, and of "making the pot boil" with leaves of books. doxus is gradually converted to the persuasion, that the nity and leisure of independence are well exchanged for the fits and labours of a place under government.

Dialogue I. is introductory. Philosophy is here somewhat itrarily defined to mean the art of connecting and applying wlege. The motives which determine a man to some form ntellectual exertion are analyzed; first principles of conduct laid down; the duty of activity, and of choosing a specific ect, is enforced; the domestic life of Aristus is sketched; l something of the surrounding scenery is painted, to fill up the pauses and conceal the transitions of the conversation.

In the Second Dialogue, the writer divides the course of study which is recommended to a man of letters, into three parts, and treats first of elementary studies. Logic, Mathematics, Drawing, Chronology, Geography, the Theory of Law, and the chief Antient and Living Languages, are coolly reckoned, one and all, among those elementary acquirements, without the mastery of which a man must not expect to be able *to begin* to be any thing in life. As an introduction to logic, M. Deleuze recommends *Dumarsais*. Of mathematics, he says so little, that we rather suspect him of being a feeble amateur; and of classing the school-boy attainments of arithmetic, book-keeping, and a little algebra and geometry, among the sublimer acquirements. Of drawing, which is more cultivated and better understood on the continent than in Great Britain, he speaks in an unusual manner:

'*Aristus.*—Well; I will tell you how to make a great progress in this art of design, without any master; or rather with the aid of an infallible one, who is always at hand. Get a canvas, or a board, painted black, or rather a slate about three feet square, and use a white pencil. By the help of a ruler, draw on a similar board, which is to stand beside you, a horizontal line. This is your first model. Then, still with your ruler and compasses, divide regularly this line by four or five perpendiculars. Copy this second model, and copy it repeatedly, until you can rapidly trace the verticals and the horizontal as regularly intersected as if you had employed the scale and compasses. — Next, trace on your model-board an angle of forty-five degrees, and successively the other angles, and copy them in the same manner. You will thus accustom your eye to judge of the relative acuteness of angles. In order to verify your progress, have recourse to the rule and compasses; this is the infallible, the never absent preceptor, of whom I was speaking. From angles pass to the different sorts of triangles by the same process; and then your course of instruction is completed for right lines. You can imitate all that can be done with them. — Next, as to curve-lines. Begin by the circle; which you must draw repeatedly, until your hand be sufficiently exercised to describe it with one stroke, and to place a point in the center. Then pass on to other forms of curves, and thence to complex geometrical figures. When you have acquired that justness of eye, and that precision of hand, which enable you to describe these forms, without instruments, nearly as well as with their assistance, you have learned as much as you would have acquired in two years at the academy, and can already copy an architectural design. Such are the first principles; let us extend their application. Hitherto you have imitated only figures traced on a plane surface; your eye must now be accustomed to pursue contours which project or recede. Choose, to begin, the simplest forms: a vase, for instance.

'*Eudoxus.* — Here the gradation is abrupt. To pass from the imitation of drawings to that of objects is difficult; and I have now no compasses to correct my errors.

'*Aristus.*—By choosing at first objects of a simple form, you will easily perceive whether you have well copied the outline; and you may verify, by means of small squares, your performance.

'*Eudoxus.* — I know that by stretching a net of strait threads across a pane of glass, so as to divide it like a draught-board; by making a similar division on the paper; and then by placing in each corresponding square of the paper that part of the object or landscape which appears through the subdivision on the pane, a drawing may be executed in tolerable perspective: but this gives a timidity of manner.

'*Aristus.* — I do not advise you to employ the net of squares in making your drawing, but in verifying the exactness of drawings when made. Nothing is so important as to detect every error of the eye. Of the illusions of optics you must accustom yourself not to be the dupe; and you will accomplish this only by frequently employing some infallible standard to ascertain in what degree you can see correctly, and record rightly what you have seen. The *camera obscura* will be perhaps the best instrument for this purpose. — Take some object of a definite and measurable form, a prism, a pyramid, a cube, or a sphere; lay it on the table, enlighten it with a taper, and attempt to copy not only its shape, but its degrees of shade. There are mathematical methods of determining the forms which such objects assume in perspective, and the length of the shadows projected. Draw from what you see; correct the drawing by measurement; and repeat the operation, until the results coincide. When you are sure of having acquired great precision of glance, then first begin to attempt the human figure. In order to learn to correct the drawing, attend lectures on anatomy; fourteen or fifteen will suffice to direct and guide you. Something you should read about the theory of proportions. I approve the *Petit Traité de Jean Cousins.* — There remains one more faculty to exercise and to strengthen, — the memory. That draftsman is incomplete, who cannot preserve so distinct a recollection of an object as to depict it when it is absent.

'*Eudoxus.*—Little attention is paid in schools to this department of the art: but it is in practical life eminently useful.

'*Aristus.* — Methods may be found to accelerate your progress. Suppose that you have chosen the figure of Antinous for your model. Draw on your slate the mere outline complete, and with scrupulous exactness. When the drawing is finished, rub it out, and begin it afresh from memory; recurring to the model only for the traits which you have forgotten. When you have *learnt the figure by heart* (if we may so apply the phrase) cover it with a veil, and draw without it,—but compare the finished drawing with the figure, and correct carefully by the model. In a little time, you will find that you *know by heart* whatever you have once drawn with the pencil; and that you can replace, from the mental store-house, the portfolio of which accident or force may rob you. Every trial speeds progress. — In outline, you are now complete: — but it is time to take some lessons of a master, in order to acquire the more expeditious methods of applying color, light, and shade, so as to give a picturesque effect to your delineations. *Valenciennes*, one of our best landscape-painters, has written a *Traité de Perspective*, which (I believe) suggested to me some of the counsels that I have been giving.'—

The conversation then turns off to new topics; among others, to languages, geography, and common-place-books. The pupil (p. 157.) is advised to learn Hebrew, in order that he may enter into the floating questions of scripture-criticism; and he is advised (p. 183.) *not* to learn Chess, because it requires an application and combination of intellectual effort, which ought to be reserved for things less futile. It is recommended to him (p. 186.) to adopt a method of correcting his style *memoriter*, or internally, without bringing his words to paper; which is stated to be an economy both of time and toil. For the construction of common-place-books, the author suggests (1.) the use of single sheets, so that any one when spoiled can be withdrawn; (2.) the preservation of a broad margin at each edge; the one, to contain references which connect the extract with an alphabetic index, and with other extracts; while the other margin is to contain annotations; (3.) to be regular in sending to the binder a certain quantity of this essence of study.

The Third Dialogue treats on the division of sciences, of their origin, foundation, and connection, and of the order in which they ought to be learned:—on the observation of fact;—and on the value of theory as an artificial memory. Then follow specific commendations of mineralogy, botany, zoology, anatomy, entomology, *physique*, (natural philosophy,) chemistry, technology or the mechanic arts, practical astronomy, and geology. Some limits are hinted, beyond which the gentleman is not expected to extend his knowlege of these sciences. Travelling is discussed, and admitted to be essential to a polished character. Reflections on method, and on the causes of error, terminate the conversation.

Dialogue IV. is introductory to the study of history. Father *Petau's Rationarium Temporum* is still considered as the best skeleton of universal history. Among the modern books, M. DELEUZE distinguishes with applause *Koch's Tableau des Révolutions de l'Europe*, lately published at Paris in three octavo volumes*.—Some singular counsels here occur; for instance, to read Diodorus Siculus on the primæval times, before Herodotus; in consequence of which process, those foolish dreams of the superficial antiquities of the age of Augustus, of which the sounder literature of the age of Alexander knew nothing, will pass for truth in the memory. *Bossuet's* division of history into periods is justly criticized, as inconvenient and unnatural. The author recommends his pupils, wisely, we think, to read the master-pieces of literature of each country, while engaged in the study of its history. Almost every nation has its *Bibliothèque portatif*, which contains in a little compass the essence of its fine literature.—Speaking of Italian antiquities, Dempster *De Hetruria regali* is strongly praised; and in referring to Constantinopolitan antiquities, *Hanke's Scriptores Historiæ Byzantinæ* is as decidedly applauded. The topic of Antient History occupies the whole discussion.

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* See Rev. Vol. 56. N. S. p. 509. (*Appendix.*)

Volume II. opens with a fifth Dialogue, in which the inexhaustible subject of history is again on the carpet, or rather in the air; for our peripatetics stroll abroad for the sake of the surrounding scenery. The middle ages are now introduced. The reign of Theodoric fixes attention as having exhibited the first honourable specimen of barbarian sway, and having thus become the real model of the independent sovereignties established by the Goths in the north of Europe. The pupil is advised to peruse Cassiodorus, Boethius, and Salvian; they were favourite classics among the learned who were attached to the Charlemagnes and the Alfreds, and thus have powerfully influenced the jurisprudence and philosophy of the north.

On the origin of chivalry, short observations are made; and the essay of *Heeren, On the Crusades* [*], is mentioned as illustrative of the subject. The abolition of domestic slavery is more extensively considered. *Pottgiesser, de Statu Servorum*, is distinguished as an excellent treatise. A sigh is heaved over the negligence of Arabic scholars, who might translate for public information several writers concerning the crusades and the middle ages, that are known to slumber in our libraries.

The history of the establishment of borough-corporations, of elective magistracies, and of companies of traders, is indicated as still requiring the researches of the antiquary. A passage is also mentioned in the work of *Guibert*, the Abbé of Nogent, who wrote *De Vitâ Suâ*, in which he describes the first formation of the *Commune*, or common council of Laon. It was a voluntary, and somewhat revolutionary, confederacy of the citizens, modelled on pre-existing town-governments.

> 'It is remarkable,' says the author, 'that at this period the Jews were those who chiefly acquired distinction in science and letters. About the middle of the twelfth century, many appear who are worthy to figure in the history of the human mind, of which they in some degree fill up a *lacuna*. The first is Aben-Esra, one of the best scripture-commentators, a skilful philologer, as his *Elegantiæ*

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[*] See Review, Vol. LX. p. 466. N. S. (*Appendix.*)

Grammaticæ prove, and a learned astronomer. For this last science he founded a school, in which Abraham Cheia and Abraham Nasi distinguished themselves, and in which was formed Isaac Abensid, the chief author of the Alphonsine Tables. David Kimchi of Narbonne, and Solomon Jarchi of Troyes in Champagne, displayed much erudition. The latter, who was called by the Jews the prince of commentators, had travelled in Europe, Asia, and Africa.

‘The poets of this nation, such as Alcharisi, Hallari, and Joseph Hadaüan of Cordova, were superior to their cotemporaries;—and lastly the celebrated Moses, son of Maimon, who was born at Cordova, and fled for refuge to Ægypt, was of all the rabbies the most enlightened and best informed. A portion of the spirit of Aristotle must be conceded to him, when we regard his numerous writings, and especially his *More-Nevochim*, or Doubtful Questions, of which *Buxtorf* has given a Latin version. This last work will be sufficient to make you acquainted with the philosophy and theology of the Jews. In casting your eyes over the works of Aben-Esra, you may ascertain how much of criticism and of literature the rabbies preserved in a period of ignorance.’

Some comments succeed on the important discoveries of gun-powder and printing; and the use of *middle* in modern history. The *Hispania Illustrata* of *Schott* is praised for assembling the more valuable native original chroniclers.

The Sixth Dialogue proposes to enter the crowded square of modern history. It begins, however, by discussing the rules of historical criticism; and it chooses for an example the account of Christ which is given by Josephus. M. Deleuze declares against the authenticity of the passage. We have often supported the same opinion, on the best evidence. Lardner gives many reasons for supposing that testimony to be a gross forgery; and Warburton expresses contempt for the understanding of those who believe it to be genuine. Yet it has been argued that Josephus was himself an aspirant to the high priesthood of Jerusalem, as the legal representative of the Asmonæan family; that Titus and Vespasian cannot be supposed to have acted without his advice, when they proscribed Simeon (Eusebius, liv. iii. c. 12.) and the other claimants of the house of David; and that it exactly suited the purpose of Josephus to recognize, as the prophesied Christ, that one member of the royal family in whose pedigree there was a flaw: consequently, that it is probable that such a testimony, as occurs in the Antiquities, should have been drawn up by Josephus.—We shall not here pursue the debate.

The study of modern history ought to be commenced, this author thinks, by some antiquarian inquiries concerning the origin of those nations which first begin to assert a place in grand events, at the close of the dark ages. The nature of the seed should draw attention, when the plant first becomes conspicuous. A curious fact is recorded at p. 143:

> 'Father *Gaubil*, in a manuscript preserved by the board of longitude, relates that, 1100 years before the Christian era, an emperor, whose memory is still venerated by the Chinese, determined, at the two solstices, the length of the meridian shadows projected by a gnomon. The measurement of these shadows, which is stated by father *Gaubil*, gives the latitude of the city of Loango, such as it has been determined by observation. This is not all. If we calculate, according to *Laplace's* formulæ, the obliquity of the ecliptic eleven hundred years before the Christian era, it exactly accords with that which is derived from the two solstitial observations. Now, these results cannot be the effect of chance; yet neither the Chinese nor the Jesuits were equal to the calculation of them; and the very laws which follow the diminution of the obliquity of the ecliptic were, even in *Gaubil's* time, not well known; it must be inferred, therefore, that the Chinese existed as a nation, and were skilled in dialling, twelve centuries before our era.'

The Seventh Dialogue turns on geography, and the use of travelling. The art of self-education, as applicable to the exploratory class of travellers, is here too rapidly hurried over.— In the Eighth Dialogue, some good observations occur on the method of treating temporary topics, so as to secure for the tractate a perpetual interest. *Rousseau's* letter to *d'Alembert*, on stage-plays, is cited as an instance of that art of mooting, on a specific case, inferences that are universally important, which constitutes the secret of conducting occasional discussion.

Dialogue IX. examines the nature, origin, and purpose of poetry. The scenery and eloquence of this dialogue are remarkable for a more glowing beauty than that which shone in the preceding conversations; and therefore, no doubt, it was reserved for the concluding fragment. The daughter of Aristus is now introduced, and gives by her attendance a new interest to the criticism. Many prejudices of the French are here attacked. The Odes of *Klopstock* are applauded, and specimens are produced. The great law of imitating nature, instead of the pr ductions of the successful artists, is enforced with the eal which its fundamental importance requires. Not to th poet only, but to the painter and the sculptor, it should be peated, until it is duly impressed. Aristus makes an apolo for Shakspeare, and hints that perhaps the forms of goth tragedy are as natural as those of Greek tragedy. The us of the poet is placed in his evolving those sympathies wh bind us to the human race, in his continually inuring y o prefer the social to the selfish passions, in his training y think with eloquence and to act with magnanimity, and in his teaching both the love of glory and the art of deserving it through virtue.

This book will be considered as displaying more information than judgment, and more acquirement than grace; it has little of that dramatic merit which constitutes the charm of dialogue, and much of that erudite knowlege which is useful in the choice of a library. It is the work of a promising young man, well and extensively read; whose views are vague, but rational; whose style is natural, but not alluring; who deserves a warmer praise than he is likely to excite; and who seems adapted to serve if not to adorn his country.

Art. III. *De la Liberté des Mers; i.e.* On the Freedom of the Sea. By M. de Rayneval. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 586. Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l.

Above a century and a half have passed since the extension of European commerce has made the freedom of navigation a branch of literary disquisition. The Dutch, the English, and the maritime nations of the north of Europe, being the parties principally interested in these questions, are also enabled to reckon the chief writers on them among their respective countrymen. The department of the subject relating to neutral rights takes origin from a more recent date, and first became an object of general attention in King William's war against France, when maritime hostilities were conducted on an extensive scale, and the issue of the battle of La Hogue gave a decided superiority to the allied powers. The weaker belligerent is naturally disposed to claim the aid of neutrals; and, in every subsequent contest, the degree in which that aid should be permitted has formed a subject of discussion between the stronger naval power and the neutral. In these diplomatic debates, it is customary to appeal to the decisions of eminent writers on the law of nations, however little the rulers of countries may be disposed to fashion their proceedings by the principles of those voluminous authorities. The secret springs of public measures towards neutrals are to be sought, we believe, in a very different direction,—in the dictates of local interests, and the computations of national power; while the precept of the civilian is scarcely regarded otherwise than as a cloak. *Bonaparte* has always professed himself to be a zealous defender of neutral privileges, and, in the excess of his kindness, has often gone farther in the demand of redress than the suffering parties themselves. M. de Rayneval, like a dutiful subject, has enlisted under the same banners; and he claims, by a process of "ratiocination," the surrender of those restraints against which his master remonstrates in the louder tone of declarations and manifestoes. M. DE R. is already known to the reading part of the community by his "*Institutes on the Law of Nature and Nations.*" Of his present work, the fundamental rule, according to his own statement, is to steer clear as well of the particular systems of individual authors as of the temporary conventions of governments, and to fix an undivided attention on the general principles of the law of nations. No Frenchman has undertaken the discussion of maritime law on this plan; and among foreign writers the only one who is intitled, in M. DE R.'s opinion, to be exempted from the charge of narrow or partial views, is Mons. *Lampredi*, the author of a well-known treatise on the commerce of neutrals.

In proceeding to an analysis of M. DE RAYNEVAL's opinions, it may be well to apprize our readers that such an investigation is to be considered rather as a duty than a pleasure, and that few topics are more devoid of attraction than an inquiry into the freedom of navigation: but that our multiplied differences with America, and with the powers of the north of Europe, have conferred on it an interest which demands a temporary suspension of literary gratification, for the sake of ascertaining the merits of a political discussion.

Freedom of the Sea.—That the sea is the common property of mankind, and should be open to the use of all, is a general feeling: but it is a feeling, says the author, of habit and instinct, and has scarcely ever exercised the powers of an inquisitive mind so far as to undergo a radical analysis or comprehensive explanation. Among the antients, we are unable (as already remarked in our Review, Vol. lix. p. 421.) to discover any trace of regulations for property in merchantmen in time of war: the right of search, the custom of privateering, and even the acknowlegement of neutrals, being all unknown to them. Commerce in those ages was endangered only by pirates, and all nations were agreed in waging war on those lawless desperadoes. Rhodes was one of the most commercial cities of antiquity, and her maritime regulations were chiefly directed towards security against pirates. In modern times, the *Consolato del Mare* is the first remarkable instrument on the subject of maritime jurisprudence. It owed its origin to a sense of mutual interest on the part of states which were frequently involved in war with each other, and is one monument, among many, of the beneficent fruits of liberty in modern Italy: — but it is by no means a favourite document in M. DE RAYNEVAL's code. He is fond of enlarging on our ignorance of its origin, on its being nowhere practically adopted as a system of law, and on its being chiefly quoted by powers, like England, whose authoritative treatment of neutrals receives a sanction from its enactments. It forms a part, he says, of that arbitrary and unnatural jurisprudence which it is the object of his work to attack, and which he hopes to refute by opposing the force of universal right to the caprice and interest of particular nations. In doing this he claims the sanction of Grotius, who in his *Mare liberum* has laid down the principle of freedom on the ocean, but without giving to his arguments that extension which he might have asserted had he anticipated opposition. On the other hand, his antagonist, Selden, having right much less clearly on his side, has exhausted, in his *Mare clausum*, all his store of erudition, and all his subtilty of argument. Not contented with maintaining the general doctrine that the ocean may be subjected to particular regulations, Selden, in dutiful acquiescence with the arbitrary views of the government of the day, asserts that England is intitled to exercise maritime sovereignty along the whole tract extending from her shore to that of North America. His book, though dedicated to Charles I., was found so suitable to the views of the Long Parliament against the Dutch, as to be translated and published by its order. The idle question of the honour of the flag was in those days considered as a point of great importance, and formed a principal article in the treaty between Cromwell and the Dutch in 1654.

Selden's work may still be said, to form, in M. DE RAYNEVAL's opinion, one of the sources of the belligerent claims of England: he has subjected it, therefore, to a long examination; and he has devoted above one hundred pages of his second volume to an exposition of its contents, and an elaborate refutation of them. It is to us alone that he attributes the continuance of restraint on the freedom of neutral navigation; and of every other country he is disposed to exclaim, "*Nil ille nec ausus nec potuit.*" He observes, truly enough, that the disputes between belligerents and neutrals are multiplied by the contradictory language of public declarations and treaties; which are so often worded in conformity to temporary circumstances, as to afford equally little appearance of fundamental principle or of consistent usage. What attention to the spirit of equity, asks the author, is to be expected in treaties dictated by the strong to the weak, and maintained at the cannon's mouth? Were the case even otherwise, no accumulation of particular conventions can afford a solution for every difficulty that may occur; and still we should find ourselves obliged to seek for land-marks in the adoption of leading principles. Making the investigation of these principles the great object of his labours, and founding his conclusions on them alone, M. DE R. lays it down as a rule to admit of little reference to the authority of other writers, and to quote scarcely any except those whom he labours to refute, especially Vattel, Bynkershoek, and Lord Liverpool. The last attracts his particular attention, as the Selden of the present day, and the advocate of the maritime system of great Britain. Of Puffendorf he speaks with very little respect, in consequence of his having mixed political considerations with discussions to which they had no reference, as well as on account of the paucity of his general views.

M. DE R. is careful to premise (p. 21.) that his claim of free navigation extends to the open sea only, the neighbourhood of the shore being the property of the power that commands it. Selden, on the other hand, contended for the establishment of jurisdiction over the ocean, on the plan of regulating the limits of each nation's domain by lines extended from headlands, promontories, islands, &c. Whatever we may think of the present writer when in competition with our late advocate, Lord Liverpool, we have no hesitation in acknowleging that he has the right side of the question in his debate with Selden. Admitting the practicability of lines of latitude and longitude defining the several jurisdictions with mathematical precision, what purpose of utility could it answer either to the world at large, or to any particular country? The parts of the sea best worth appropriating seem to be the fishing tracts; yet has any diminution ever been perceived among the whales of Greenland, or the herrings of Shetland, from the indiscriminate admission of all nations? — We conclude this paragraph by copying the logical process by which M. DE R. ascertains the right of every country to the freedom of the sea: 'Every nation is essentially independent on her own territory; the sea, being open to all, is to each country the same as her own territory; to assail her on the one is therefore as great an aggression as to assail her on the other. The conduct of all civilized nations towards each other in time of peace affords a complete exemplification of these principles; and it is only during war that the restraints imposed on neutrals exhibit a deviation from them.' —This consideration leads the author to treat, in the next place, of neutrals.

Neutrals; Contraband Stores.—Neutrality, says M. DE R., consists in abstaining from all acts of offence towards belligerents; particularly from succouring one to the prejudice of another, which would in fact be taking part in the contest. In admitting restrictions on neutrals, we should keep in mind, he remarks, that, navigation being an universal right, any modification of it is an exception to a general rule, and ought not to be extended beyond its specific object. Custom has classed the supply of arms and warlike stores in the offensive catalogue, with more regard, perhaps, to the apparent than the real state of the case. Now among all the powers of Europe no one, he says, is dependent on a foreign quarter for a supply of such indispensable articles; and they scarcely ever form a part of the cargo of a neutral; though a suspicion of them, real or pretended, constitutes one of the strongest pleas for the right of search.—Disposed as we are to concur with M. DE R. in the fact, we can by no means go so far as to contemplate the relinquishment of the right of search for warlike stores. Will he deny the probable occurrence of cases similar to that of the beginning of the American war; in which the Americans, having few arms, received from France (at that time a neutral power) supplies of the greatest importance to the prosecution of hostilities?—After having discussed the point of warlike stores, the author adverts to the conveyance of a very different commodity, the precious metals. These having been accounted in all times the sinews of war, one of our earliest treaties, that with Sweden in 1656, condemns to indiscriminate seizure all specie on board of neutrals bound to the ports of a belligerent; but later conventions have modified this sweeping sentence as far as the specie is proved to be private property. With regard to naval stores, our toleration is more extensive than it might at first be supposed. We permit the transport of all naval stores in an unmanufactured state, on the principle of stopping nothing but what is directly applicable to the purposes of warfare. Articles, on the other hand, apparently of less consequence, such as saddles and bridles, are prohibited on the ground of their immediate aptitude to objects of hostility. These regulations, admitted into former treaties, received a definitive sanction by our convention with Russia in 1801.

Enemy's Property on board of Neutrals.—On coming to the important and long disputed question whether "free ships make free goods," M. DE RAYNEVAL strongly exerts his oratory on the affirmative side. All the property of belligerents, if not contraband of war, should, he maintains, be sacred when on board a neutral, because the neutral is impartial, and is ready to protect by his flag the property of either combatant. 'If you deny him this privilege, the means of evasion,' says the author, 'are easy:—he makes the property his own by purchase before he takes it on board.' It is, however, wholly needless for us to go at any length into a counter-argument with M. DE R., since the parties most interested in maintaining his opinions, viz. the Northern Powers, made a full and formal abandonment of them in our treaty of 1801, as had previously been done by the Americans in 1794. Yet, eager as M. de R. is to make enemy's property neutral when on board a neutral ship, he takes care to negative the converse proposition, that neutral property should be treated as that of an enemy when in an enemy's vessel.—If he be tenacious on such a point as this, much more may we expect to find him rigid with regard to the question so long contested between us and America, we mean the title of neutrals to carry on in war a trade to which they are not admitted in peace. In peace, France forbids the access of other nations to her colonies as strictly as we do: but, in war, not having the means of continuing the trade herself, she finds it convenient to open her colonies to neutrals. No doubt can be entertained of the right of a government to act with her colonies as she thinks fit; the question is whether the neutrals can take advantage of a change arising out of a state of war, without forfeiting their neutrality? M. de Rayneval argues broadly that to restrain a neutral power in any traffic, except articles that are contraband of war, amounts to a denial of its independence: but in this as in the former question, he unluckily goes beyond the pretensions of the power most interested in the maintenance of the title, the United States having consented, by the treaty of 1806, to relinquish the direct trade from the French colonies to the mother-country, and to submit to the circuitous passage by their own shores, before they venture to transport the colonial produce of a belligerent to Europe. They admit, likewise, that the property must be *bonâ fide* neutral; disclaiming all title to the power of affording protection, by their flag, to the property of a belligerent.

Right of Search.—Of all the points contested by M. de Rayneval, that which excites his most vehement opposition is our claim to the right of search. Though sanctioned by a number of treaties, it has grown, he affirms, from the want of due precaution, into a practice 'directly contrary to the true principles of the law of nations,—vexatious, arbitrary, and oppressive.' He lays it down as a fundamental rule that, in the *open sea*, the neutral flag is completely independent, and exempt from the visitation of belligerents. On the ocean, all that, in his opinion, is incumbent on a neutral is to verify the authenticity of her flag by the production of her papers; and it is only on an enemy's coast that a cruizer is intitled to proceed to an inspection of the neutral's cargo. This doctrine he maintains, in despite of all treaties and authorities, on the broad principle that no nation possesses jurisdiction on the ocean. How is a cruizer, then, to proceed on meeting with a suspicious neutral on the open sea? 'Not stop her there,' says this resolute pleader, 'but watch and follow her till, by approaching an enemy's coast, she affords just cause for search or detention.' On these and similar passages, it is needless to say any thing except that, were the court of the Thuilleries the predominating maritime power, we should soon see a different string of doctrines proceed from the pens of its public functionaries. Had the present author confined his complaints to the abusive practices too often attendent on the right of search,—practices originating in the indiscreet and violent habits of many of those on whom its exercise devolves,—we might have gone a certain length in concurring with him: but his object is to strike directly at the principle. 'On your own coast,' he says, 'you possess the right, and on your enemy's coast you have the right confirmed by the suspicion which the appearance of the neutral in such a quarter naturally excites, but in the open sea all search is tyranny and hostility.' This is to say, in other words, that all neutrals are assured of impunity on the open sea; for to talk of a cruizer leaving her station to watch a single vessel would be ridiculous, when that vessel has at any time the power of altering her course.—After having thus advocated the freedom of neutrals as single merchantmen, we may expect to find the author not less positive in their favour when treating of a fleet of neutrals under convoy of a man of war belonging to their own nation. The object of the escort is to save the merchant-ships from interruption or detention; and the captain of the man of war is consequently enabled to attest the regularity of the papers of the different vessels under his charge. Speaking in the name of his sovereign, the mutual courtesy of governments requires, says M. DE RAYNEVAL, that 'to declarations from such authority implicit attention should be paid.' Here, however, as in the former cases, it unluckily happens that this zealous combatant for neutral rights is deserted by those whose cause he has espoused. Our memorable convention with Russia in 1801 adjusted, among other points, the privileges of neutral convoys; and it established that merchantmen thus escorted, though exempt from the search of privateers, should remain subject to the visitation of men of war. Had impartiality formed any part of this author's object, he would not have failed to acknowlege that the presence of a neutral ship of war, at the head of a fleet of merchantmen, is a circumstance so much out of the natural course of things, as to tend rather to the excitement than the abatement of a belligerent's suspicion. He would have entered likewise on the question of searching neutral merchantmen for the seamen of a belligerent, and have admitted the justice of apprehending them in all cases in which it could be done with a clear discrimination of the native country of the individual. In thus acnowleging the right of searching merchantmen, he might, ith perfect confidence, have recorded a negative opinion in egard to neutral men of war; — the detention of a governnent-vessel, whether suspected or not, implying such a want of onfidence in the fountain of power as can scarcely fail to be onstrued into a national affront. It is therefore to be avoided y all countries which are desirous of remaining at peace with each other.

Right of Blockade. — Our treaty with Russia in 1801 having been concluded, as we have elsewhere remarked, (Vol. lix. p. 425.) in a spirit of mutual justice, and having terminated many of the long pending discussions between us and the northern powers, *Bonaparte* has of late years been somewhat at a loss for maritime topics of declamation. In this dilemma, the question of the extension of blockade has appeared to him an important as well as a plausible subject of discussion. So far back as the beginning of the war, our government had no hesitation in putting a hundred miles of the enemy's coast in a state of blockade; that is, in forbidding neutrals to approach any harbour within that extent under pain of detention. As the war proceeded, our views of our blockading prerogative became greatly expanded; whole coasts were subjected to the penalty of non-intercourse; and the *coup de grace* was at last given to neutral traffic, by our Orders in Council in November 1807. All this, *Bonaparte* contends, is contrary to the principles of military law, which recognize no blockade either at sea or on land, unless the place in question be actually invested. In blocking a seaport, the ships are generally stationed in such a manner as to prevent the access of supplies. Within this line, it is admitted on all sides that no neutral can enter without committing a violation of his neutrality, and subjecting himself to capture: but at a distance from it, no farther restraint, says the French government, should be imposed on neutrals than at any other part of an enemy's coast. On this head, M. DE RAYNEVAL's arguments are better founded than they are in many other passages of his book. To give a right to dictate on the sea, the possession, he says, must be real, not imaginary; who ever heard of a siege or blockade being constituted on paper? and why should a neutral be interrupted unless he attempts to communicate with a place actually invested? Were printed declarations sufficient to confer the same rights as actual blockade, there would be no end, he adds, to the obstructions of neutral navigation; and penalties might be imposed on the approach to every harbour and coast in Europe. This forms the question at present in suspence between us and the United States: but our government, conscious of the untenable nature of the ground, declines to argue the point on general principles, and defends our Orders in Council on the plea of retaliation.

Prize Courts.—M. DE RAYNEVAL, always a staunch advocate for the neutral, is by no means satisfied that the prize-court should be wholly composed of the countrymen of the captor. It is not in such a quarter, he adds, that we are to look for impartial judges; war is the season of disorder, and of the overthrow of all social principles; and neutrals cannot expect to escape the general confusion. The detained neutral is brought to a bar at which no notice is likely to be taken of any mal-treatment that he may have received; and he is subjected to courts which, even in free countries, are avowedly actuated by the instructions of government. The author, however, acknowleges that it would be extremely difficult to devise tribunals of a different kind; and that neutral governments may ascribe their chief vexations in war to their supineness during peace, with regard to the discussion of all disputed questions. He expatiates less than we expected on the hardship of the "law's delay" in England; and he does not seem to be sufficiently apprized of the singular inducements afforded by our usages to appeal, even when a thorough consciousness of wrong subsists.—Proceeding to the definition of certain terms in the vocabulary of civilians, he understands, by the word "*reciprocity*," the obtaining of the same degree of freedom for a neutral from one belligerent as from another. If the neutral fails in procuring this, the other belligerent is no longer bound to his contract, but is at liberty to place himself on the footing of his opponent. If England, for example, agrees to respect the neutrality of the American coast, so as to begin no action with an enemy nearer to the shore than five miles, and if France refuses to come under a similar obligation, England is no longer bound to her original stipulation.—"*Reprisals*" are explained by M. DE R. to consist in the 'seizure of the property of the individuals of a country whose government has given offence to a foreign state.' The innocent being thus made to suffer for the guilty, the measure would be altogether inequitable, were it not for the mutual responsibility of the members of the same body-politic. Still it is an extreme measure, and can be justified only by the existence of a manifest grievance, as well as by the previous trial and failure of all conciliatory means.—Amid all his definitions of prize-courts and law terms, however, M. DE R. takes especial care to avoid noticing the memorable exemplification of "*reprisals*," which was afforded two years ago by *Bonaparte's* Rambouillet decree; by which, without "a manifest grievance or the trial of conciliatory means," his Imperial Majesty was graciously pleased to appropriate to himself all the cargoes of his American friends which lay at that time within his reach!

Treaties and Conventions.—In discussing the various treaties which have borne reference to neutral privileges, the author casts an eye of distinguished favour on the armed neutrality of 1780. It deserves, he says, to be particularly recorded, because it attracted general attention, and was regarded as the first step towards the establishment of a new maritime code. This notable document declared that all belligerent property, with the exception of contraband stores, should be safe from capture when on board a neutral; and that no port could be pronounced to be in a state of blockade unless there was evident danger, from the presence of ships of war, in any attempt on the part of the neutral to enter. Planned by France and Russia, and in concert with Denmark, this bold and decisive convention was successively adopted by Sweden, Holland, Prussia, Austria, and even by our antient ally, Portugal. Energetic, however, as it is, M. de R. is not yet satisfied; because it does not abolish the right of search, nor pronounce the declaration of the commander of the neutral convoy-ship to be conclusive. At this rate, we can scarcely expect the Russian treaty of June 1801 to rank high in his estimation; and he accordingly passes it over in a few words, lamenting bitterly that the fire of Nelson's artillery should have destroyed the seeds of the new maritime coalition. With the over-bearing conduct of England, he contrasts (Vol. i. p. 146.) the liberal and indulgent tenor of the French edict on neutral trade, which was passed in the beginning of the American war, and known by the name of the *Réglement de* 1778. Here, he says, was an example of moderation in the season of prosperity, France consenting to the free conveyance of enemy's property on board of neutrals at the time when, allied with Spain, she might be considered as the mistress of the sea:—but we can by no means subscribe to the assertion that France in 177[illegible] either was, or believed herself to be, the preponderating naval power. However strong in numbers, she was conscious of inferior efficiency; the vigour of Chatham and the victories of Hawke having left an impression not easily effaced.—We decline to enter on the merits of particular treaties, and shall conclude by remarking that the rules which at present govern the decisions of our high court of admiralty are by no means in consonance with M. de Rayneval's tenets; and that Sir William Scott, or, as he calls him, *le docteur Scott*, is roughly handled on several occasions. The first-rate authors are treated with equally little ceremony; *Vattel* is run down; and *Lampredi* is almost his only favourite. 'Mons. *Jenkinson*,' (the late

Lord Liverpool) is declared, as may well be supposed, an enemy to all that is fair and candid in maritime law.

The second volume is little better than a compilation. After a long analysis of Selden's *Mare clausum*, we are presented with a still longer translation of a "*Discours par Mons. Jenkinson*" on neutral trade, published so far back as 1757. This is followed by the official papers relative to our rupture with Holland in the year 1780; and the Dutch answer to our declaration of war on that occasion brings this publication of M. DE RAYNEVAL to a close. — We can scarcely flatter this Gallic jurist with the prospect of extended fame from his labours. His style is remarkably diffuse, and full of repetitions; while his selection of documents is little to be commended either for the choice or the quantity. We have no doubt, however, that he is satisfied that he has done much better than if he had followed our old-fashioned admonitions about impartiality. He belongs to the class of meritorious persons who may be termed "wise in their generation;" and of the object of his writings our readers will be at no loss to form an opinion from the following sentence in his introduction, which shall serve as a conclusion to our review:

> '*Napoleon*, by his wisdom and his power, has fixed the lot of the Continent; he has destroyed the seeds of dissension and of war; and the only species of glory, which it remains to him to acquire, is that of being the author of a maritime code which shall fix the freedom of the sea on a just and immutable basis, and confer security on the navigation and trade of the four quarters of the globe.'

ART. IV. *Clinique Chirurgicale*, &c.; *i.e.* Clinical Surgery, or Memoirs and Observations relative to this and other Branches of the healing Art. By PH. J. PELLETAN, Consulting Surgeon to their Imperial and Royal Majesties, Knight, Member of the Legion of Honour, and of the French Institute, &c. &c. &c. 8vo. 3 Vols. Paris. 1810. Imported by Dulau and Co. Price 2l. 2s.

THE work of M. PELLETAN offers many claims to our attention. If we may judge from the long list of honorary titles which is affixed to his name, the author holds the first rank in his profession; he has been for a number of years engaged in extensive practice, public and private; and he assures us that these volumes may be considered as the faithful result of the knowlege which he has gained. Although devoted to the improvement of the surgical art from an early age, he appears to have resisted the desire of becoming an author until a late period of life; and after all the experience which his situation was calculated to afford him, he still manifests that kind of sollicitude respecting the value of his performance, which would create in our minds a strong presentiment in its favour. He informs us, in the preface, that he has not adopted the plan of constructing a complete treatise on any part of the art, because this would be to suppose that no person had previously supplied any thing valuable on the same subject, and because it would have been necessary to copy what has been before written; thus multiplying books, with which the shops are already filled, and which scarcely survive their authors.

> 'I have on this account,' he says, 'resolved to write only memoirs on all those parts of surgery, in which my experience and observation seem to enable me to contribute some improvement. I have followed the method of the old Royal Academy of surgery, to which our art is indebted for its lustre and its elevation: but this difference subsists between their publication and mine, that the Academy received the contributions of all the learned men who wished to correspond with it, while I have depended on my own personal experience. All the facts which are related are my own; I have abstained from bringing forwards any others, both that I might leave to every one all that belonged to him, and that no person might blame my conduct.'

If by this plan of insulation an author deprives himself of many sources of knowlege which might confirm or extend his own experience, it must be considered as, in a certain degree, adding to the authenticity of his work, and to the confidence with which we enter into his views and opinions.—The last paragraph of the preface is so truly *French*, that we cannot avoid offering it for the amusement of our readers; remarking, at the same time, that it is the only specimen of *flummery* which we have noticed through the whole production:

> 'I must say a word respecting the titles with which my name seems over-loaded at the head of this work. Most of them indicate the sources whence my surgical experience has been derived; and it was necessary to cite them, in order to attest the origin and to furnish the warrants of this experience: but the titles which are most dear to my heart I owe to the munificence of the hero who govern us. Ought I not to be proud of having received them from him? Can I ever forget the high honour of having resided about the person of this great man? I then admired him in silence: now the universe celebrates his glory, and all the human race enjoys his beneficence. May his happy posterity *equal in number the stars of the firmament*, and enjoy the immortality of which the pledge has been transmitted to them by the greatest of heroes!'

One of the first subjects on which the author treats is aneurysm, a highly interesting topic, and which has received particular attention in this country. We consequently felt curious to observe how far the opinions and practice of M. PELLETAN agreed

with

with those which are generally adopted by the English surgeons. He divides his cases into two classes, internal and external; meaning under the first head to include those aneurysms that are seated in parts beyond the reach of an operation. The attempt to cure an internal aneurysm we have always regarded as altogether impracticable and absurd; and yet such an attempt was made by him, and, as it would appear, not without a degree of success. The practice is confessedly taken from *Valsalva*, who is stated to have performed a cure of at least one case of this disease. Yet the fact, although resting on the indisputable authority of *Morgagni*, seems to have been overlooked; and the patients have been consigned to their fate, without even the idea of the possibility of their escape. M. PELLETAN himself entered on the plan of treatment with no very sanguine expectations. He says that the practice of *Valsalva* was rarely successful; and that the history of the facts is neither sufficiently detailed to be useful, nor sufficiently exact to inspire the confidence which is necessary in such a case: but, when a fatal termination would otherwise be inevitable, we are warranted in following the least ray of hope. An interesting detail of fourteen cases is here given, in which the cure of internal aneurysm was attempted; and we shall state the result in the words of the author, which we consider as conveying nearly a correct idea of the deductions that may be drawn from the facts:

'It follows from this memoir, 1st. That it is a truth long acknowleged, that aneurysm of the internal arteries is one of the most important and dangerous diseases, and which, from its nature, is necessarily fatal. 2d. That art can, however, apply a remedy with more or less success. 3d. That this remedy consists in the treatment indicated by *Valsalva*, from a hint of Hippocrates; that is, in the combination of all the means proper to procure a gradual weakening of the patient to an extreme degree, but which does not immediately endanger life. 4th. It is accomplished by an absolute repose of the body and of the mind, a strict regimen, the evacuation of blood from the arm, leeches, calming and cooling beverages, the application of ice, and of cold and astringent substances. 5th. That these applications must be combined and employed in proportions according to the temperament of the patient, and to the importance and urgency of the disease. 6th. That they are not to be misapplied in cases which do not leave any hope of success, but that even then, prudently employed, they are palliatives which relieve the distress, and may postpone the fatal termination. 7th. As to the event, three patients have obtained a radical and unequivocal cure. In one case, the cure being completed, the patient relapsed, after the space of a year, in consequence of his intemperance. In another, the disease, after having been cured at the origin of the aorta, was formed again along the descending part of this vessel. With respect to Mad. *Marchel*, art combated the disease with astonishing vigour; it triumphed many times, and after many relapses, even at moments which did not appear to leave any resource; and the patient at length sank only in consequence of the extreme complication with which she was attacked. We have seen also, that, in subjects which have necessarily perished, relief has been obtained and death deferred by a judicious plan of treatment, when the disease could be discovered and rendered apparent.'

As an exemplification of M. Pelletan's treatment of such cases, we shall give an abstract of one of those which terminated favourably. A man 61 years of age, a porter at the theatre, and also a crier of fish, of a sanguine temperament, and in the habit of drinking freely, was suddenly seized during sleep with an acute pain in the upper and right side of the chest. The acute pain soon subsided, but a permanent uneasiness was left, so considerable as to prevent him from following his usual occupations; and he was received into the Hotel-Dieu, with a strongly pulsating tumor of about six inches in circumference. The pulsation was accompanied with severe pain, which extended to the shoulder-blade and to the occiput. No doubt appears to have existed in the minds of those who saw the patient, that he was affected with an aneurysm of the arch of the aorta. In the course of the first four days, he was copiously bled, morning and evening; on the 5th day he was bled once only, when the pulse appeared to be sufficiently reduced: but it became more tense again on the 7th day, when he was bled twice more. During this period, he was subjected to a very rigid diet; while a mixture of linseed meal and vinegar was applied to the tumor, and renewed as often as it grew warm. 'This treatment had, in eight days, a wonderful effect; the pain and pulsation disappeared; the weakness of the patient did not impair his health; and he was occupied quietly with the objects around him, without uttering a complaint, or expressing any uneasiness.' The strictness of his regimen was now relaxed by degrees, and in four weeks he felt so well that he could no longer be detained in the hospital. He then spent some months in the country, and returned to Paris in a state of high health; 'with no farther vestige of his disease, than a slight and deep-seated pulsation, at the place where the crossing of the aorta causes its beating to be felt in the most natural state.' The man remained in perfect health for two years, when he died of a pectoral complaint, which did not seem to have any connection with the aneurysm.

This is the outline of the history which is related by M. Pelletan, and we do not see any sufficient ground for doubting its accuracy; unless we conclude, in the first instance, that the cure of an internal aneurysm is in itself absolutely impossible. That the derangement which is produced in many cases of aneurysm, when it occurs in the large arteries of the trunk, is decidedly irreparable, must be obvious to every one who has examined after death the ravages which have been committed on all the neighbouring parts. We may also venture to assert that, even in cases of less extensive mischief, when the affection is occasioned by a diseased state of the artery, which renders it unfit for the transmission of blood, it must be equally beyond the power of art to remove the disease. We may perhaps farther conclude that, in no case in which the artery has undergone such a change in its texture as to form an aneurysmal sac, the injury can ever be entirely repaired; yet it is not inconceivable that, by diminishing and moderating the current of blood, as far as this is not incompatible with the continuance of life, it may be so much reduced in quantity and in force as to permit a coagulum to form, sufficiently firm either to stop up the old channel entirely or to reduce it to its former size.

On one of the cases of aneurysm which were cured by this lowering system, we have to observe that, had the author been aware of the latest improvements which the art of surgery has experienced in this country, he would not have ranked it among those instances which are beyond the reach of an operation: — but we must rather regret the imperfect communication which subsists between the two empires, than impute to M. PELLETAN any deficiency of skill or judgment. The case to which we refer consisted of a considerable tumor, which occupied the region of the arm-pit; it was of an oval form, extending in its largest diameter from before the clavicle to below the mamma; and it was concluded to be an aneurysm formed by a rupture of the axillary artery, where it passes below the clavicle. The treatment was substantially the same as in the preceding instance; the patient was enabled to leave the hospital in 55 days; and, as it appears, he regained a state of perfect health.

The chapter on external aneurysms contains many interesting cases and observations, but we shall be compelled to take only a cursory view of its contents. The author devotes one section to the consideration of the Hunterian method of operating for popliteal aneurysm. It appears to have been first performed in France by *Dessault*, and, as far as the operation itself was concerned, with success; every circumstance having promised the recovery of the patient, when he died of an affection of the stomach which had no connection with the former disease. The author then details three cases in which he employed this method himself: but, although the operation seems to have been performed easily and correctly, the patients were all destroyed in consequence of the occurrence of gangrene in the diseased part. The termination of these cases being similar in each, and unlike what we observe in this country, (where, when unsuccessful, the cause is commonly found to depend on some deficiency in the part at which the artery is tied, and not in the seat of the aneurysm,) we are of course led to ascribe M. PELLETAN's failure to some peculiar or accidental circumstance; and we are disposed to conjecture that the unfortunate event may be attributed to the impure state of the atmosphere in the hospitals of Paris, a state which gives to all diseased parts a tendency to assume the gangrenous disposition.—We afterward meet with a successful case of the same operation: but here the disease was comparatively small and circumscribed, so that a less quantity of extravasated blood would be occasioned; which, by being removed from the immediate influence of the circulation, would be in danger of falling into a state of decomposition. The general conclusions which the author draws, as exhibiting the result of his experience, although candid, will not be considered as furnishing a perfectly correct state of opinion, according to our ideas:

'1st. We should execute the ligature of the popliteal artery in the aneurysm of this artery, whether depending on rupture or on simple dilatation. 2d. We should apply a compressing apparatus, after the ligature of the popliteal artery. 3d. We may adopt Hunter's method, when the mass of blood in the aneurysm does not lead us to fear a spontaneous degeneracy of the blood which is contained in it, and especially when it is at a considerable distance from the seat of the operation. 4th. After having tied the artery according to the method of Hunter, the situation of the artery may render it unnecessary for us to apply a compressing apparatus, analogous to that which it is requisite to employ in the operation at the ham.'

Two judicious memoirs are given on Hernia; from which, if our limits permitted, we might extract many valuable remarks, this being a subject on which M. PELLETAN seems to have bestowed particular attention. These memoirs, like the preceding, are composed chiefly of a detail of cases; the first consisting of those instances in which the disease presented itself under its more usual form, and the second of those in which some uncommon or accidental circumstance tended to oppose the means employed for its removal. Those points of M. PELLETAN's practice which are the most peculiar, at least when compared with the established mode of proceeding in England, are the caution with which he employs the taxis, both as to the degree of force exerted and as to the length of time. He acts on the principle that the danger of the operation, which may be afterward necessary, is chiefly owing to the tendency to inflammation; and that this depends on the

which the disease is suffered to subsist, and on the
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on: these and other occurrences which resemble

English reader his book is perhaps not the less interesting on that very account. The volumes are surprisingly free from that kind of frippery and nationality, which is so commonly found among the French, even when treating on scientific subjects; and indeed we may say, without undue flattery, that it is a production which would do credit to the most enlightened of our countrymen.

Art. 5. *Traité de Pharmacie théorique et pratique*, &c.; *i. e.* A Treatise on theoretical and practical Pharmacy; containing the Elements of the Natural History of all Medicines, their chemical and pharmaceutical Preparation, methodically classed according to modern Chemistry, and an Explication of their Properties, Doses, &c.; with Details relative to the Arts connected with Pharmacy, and all the Operations of it; &c. &c. By J. J. Virey, Principal Apothecary to the Military Hospital of Paris. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 10s.

Though M. Virey appears to be a skilful apothecary, and a man of information, yet, like most others who have devoted their attention exclusively or principally to one object, he unreasonably magnifies the importance of his art. He endeavours to shew that, in order to be a good apothecary, it is necessary to become acquainted with all the circle of the sciences; and that a person, who is thoroughly skilled in pharmacy, is in possession of some of the most valuable knowlege which can be obtained by study or education. This is the more to be remarked, because, throughout this treatise, the duty and office of the apothecary are described as totally distinct from those of the practitioner of medicine or of surgery; his whole business being confined to the shop, to buying and selling drugs, and to compounding them according to the direction of the physician. It must indeed be observed, on the other hand, that pharmacy is a much more serious study in France than in England: accordingly, we shall find, in the course of the work, that, where an Englishman would prescribe one or at most two articles of the *materia medica*, a Frenchman would probably not be satisfied with less than half a dozen; and the pharmaceutical preparations, which in this country very seldom contain more than six or eight ingredients, in France sometimes contain nearly a hundred.

The treatise commences with a long preliminary dissertation; in which, according to the French plan, much extraneous matter occurs, mixed up, however, with some that is interesting. We have a sketch of the history of pharmacy, and of the means of perfecting the art; with an account of the studies to which an apothecary ought principally to apply himself: among which are enumerated the antient languages, natural philosophy, geography, mathematics, chemistry, zoology, botany, and mineralogy. The author then presents us with a general view of the different branches of natural history, that are supposed to be the most intimately connected with pharmacy; and he states the methods of classification that have been adopted by the most eminent proficients in the respective departments, as explanatory of the arrangement which he proposes to pursue in the course of his discussion. One section deserves our attention as giving an idea of the state of pharmaceutical knowlege in France, and in a way which must be independent of any partial opinion that either we or M. VIREY might form concerning the respective merits of our countrymen. It is 'an explanation of the principal terms which express the qualities or virtues of medicines.' These are between 80 and 90; and many of them are such as plainly indicate a state of medical hypothesis which among us is quite antiquated, and which has long been banished from our scientific publications.

Still more forcibly, however, are we impressed with this sentiment when we come to the list of the *materia medica*, which displays a heterogeneous set of substances that form a curious contrast to the simplicity of the English dispensatories. It consists of between 16 and 1700 names, of which some are synonyms: but, making due allowance for these, it would appear that the *materia medica* of France is three or four times as extensive as that of England. As a specimen, we transcribe the first 100 names under the letter C.

'*Cabaret, Cabbage, Cacalie, Cacao,—Berbiche,—Caraque,—Surinam, Cachalo, Cachou, Cactiers à Cochenille,—Serpent, Caffeyer et Caffé, Caille-lait blanc,—jaune, Cajeput, Cakile maritime, Calaguala, Calambac, Calament,—de Montagnes, Calamine, Calebassier d'Amérique, Calorique, Camelée, Caméline, Camelle, Camomille romaine,—sauvage, Camphre, Camphrée, Canang, Caneame, Canelle,—blanche, Canne,—à sucre, Canneberge, Cantharide, Caopia, Caout-chouc,—fossile, Caperon (fraise), Capillaire commun,—du Canada, Capraire, Caprier, Caprifiguier, Capucine (grande et petite), Caragne resine, Carambolier, Carbone, Cardamome, Cardiaque, Cardinale bleue, Cardon, Caret, Carline, Carmantine, Carnillet Béhen, Carotte,—sauvage, Caroubier, Carouge, Carpe, Carpobalsamum, Carthame, Carvi, Cascarille, Cassave, Casse,—des Antilles, Cassia lignea, Cassumuniar, Castor, Castoreum, Cataire, Catapuce, Caucalide, Cédrat, Cèdre du Liban, Célestine, Centaurée (grande),—(petite), Centinode, Céraiste, Ceraunias, Cerf, Cerfeuil cultivé,—d'Espagne,—hérissé,—musqué d'Espagne,—odorant, Cerf volant, Cerises, Cerisier,—à grappes,—cultivé,—mahaleb, Cerium, Cerneau.*'

It will be found on examination that, of these articles, scarcely more than 20 are admitted into any British pharmacopœia.

So far we have been engaged with the introduction: but we now arrive at the body of the work, the first book of which consists of a sketch of the natural history of simple medicinal substances, drawn from the three kingdoms of nature. In entering on this list, we were not a little startled to observe the first article of the *materia medica* to be 'MAN;' and the following is the account which M. VIREY gives of the use of this *substance* in *medicine:*

> 'MAN, *homo sapiens*, L. (*Nosce teipsum.*) The medicinal substances that were formerly drawn from this source, as the shavings of the skull for epilepsy, the parings of the nails as an emetic, the urine for jaundice, the excrements in cataplasms, the mummy as a vulnerary, the fat as an antarthritic, &c. are no more employed. We sometimes recommend woman's milk, which is very saccharine, as a powerful analeptic. The urine has also been employed externally.'

The virtues of many other animals introduced into the *materia medica* are, as our readers may suppose, equally important. We will select a few articles, taken promiscuously from the vegetable kingdom, which we may expect to harmonize more nearly with our views on the subject:

> 'Medicinal lichens; the pulmonary of the oak, *lichen pulmonarius*, Linn. foliated, grey expansion, without odour, taste slightly bitter, appears to be bechic, detersive, and aperient. Iceland lichen, *cladonia islandica* of *Achard*, and the *lichen velleus*, Linn. foliated, ash-coloured, with ciliated borders, taste slightly bitter; used as food in Iceland; are taken in infusion against catarrhs; are mucilaginous, antihectic, and sometimes purgative; produced in the forests of great mountains. *Willemet* (*Hist. des lichens utiles*) mentions the *lichen aphtorum*, L. as drastic, and vermifuge; the *lichen plicatus*, L. (*stereocaulon* of *Achard*) as astringent; its anti-epileptic virtues are imaginary; its decoction is detersive externally, as well as that of many others; it has an agreeable odour, which is employed in perfumery, as well as the *lichen rangiferinus*, L. The *lichen pyxidatus*, L. is very bectic, and, it is said, lithontriptic. The *lichen coccifer*, L. has the same virtues; it is still employed in intermittent fevers. The *lichen prunastri*, L. is fragrant, and also astringent and bechic. The *lichen caninus* has been improperly vaunted for hydrophobia. The *lichen pustulatus*, L. may supply the place of pimento, &c.'

Our readers will no doubt feel amazed at these numerous virtues of lichens, of which they could before have had no conception.—The account of the *Aloë*, corresponds more with English ideas:

> '*Aloë perfoliata*, L. *Aloë Soccotorina*, *Lamarck*. This is an extract by expression; the parts the least pure give the hepatic aloe, which is better than the caballine, the residue of the dregs. The

first is brown, semi-transparent, and of a nauseous odour; of acrid, bitter taste; purgative, drastic, and very heating. We may extract a nutritive fecula from this plant, which is done by the Cochin-chinese. It grows at Soccotora, an island near the Gulph of Arabia. The Barbadoes aloe resembles in its qualities the preceding species, and is extracted from the *aloë vulgaris, Lamarck*, and is a native of America.'

The following account of the fox-glove would not be regarded in this country as either scientific or correct; '*Digitalis purpurea*, L. and *Lutea*, L., especially the first, is much commended in epilepsy; it is an active emetic, useful externally as a vulnerary, antiscrofulous, and contains a narcotic principle.' After what we have already seen, we are not surprized to find the potatoe introduced as an article of the *materia medica*. '*Solanum tuberosum*, L. has many varieties; it was brought into England by Sir Walter Raleigh from Peru, towards the end of the 16th century. The roots afford much starch, and a quarter of their weight of mucilage. According to Lobb, they are diuretic. (See *Parmentier*.)'

These specimens will be sufficient to shew the nature of this part of the work, and to prove that it contains some useful information, but mixed with much that is trifling; that the most esteemed articles of the *materia medica* are placed nearly on the same footing with those of the most dubious virtues; and that the most valuable qualities are ascribed to such as are perfectly inert. This injudicious and indiscriminate account of the *materia medica*, we conceive, depends not altogether on an imperfect knowlege of the subject, although it must in part be attributed to this cause, but in some measure at least on the custom which prevails very generally in the writings of Frenchmen, of saying every thing on every topic, and, instead of proceeding on the plan of selection, of making it their main object to leave nothing unsaid. Without some apology of this kind, we must indeed consider M. VIREY as very ignorant and very credulous.

The next division of the treatise is occupied with chemical details, and possesses considerable merit. We are furnished with a good account of the general principles of the science, of the different chemical elements, of the constituents of animal and vegetable substances, and of the various operations of chemistry. The laboratory and its appendages are very minutely described. The pharmacopœia in all its branches then comes into view, and forms the most considerable part of the publication. We find the same general impression made on our minds by this portion as by the *materia medica*: it contains an immense quantity of matter, but it exhibits no discrimination; and like the former it affords us the means of contrasting the French and English practice, a comparison which is very decisive in favor of our countrymen. The simplicity of our prescriptions is displayed as much in the composition as in the choice of the articles; and while we are seldom in the habit of introducing any substance into a formula which is not intended to produce some decided effect, the French seem still to proceed on the old plan of using a mass of ingredients, and, without inquiring into the use of the individual parts, to rest satisfied if they imagine that advantage is derived from the whole. Hence in France the pharmaceutical preparations are still retained which were employed in England about two centuries ago. We meet with the '*Theriaque d'Andromaque*,' composed of 65 ingredients; the '*Mithridate de Damocrates*,' composed of 45; the '*Orvietan*,' of 53; besides the celestial theriac, the sublime orvietan, the opiate of Solomon, the '*electuaire hiera diacolocynthidas*' of Pachius, the blessed laxative electuary of Nicholas of Salernum, and many others which contain only about 20 or 30 articles. To such preparations as these, in consequence of the number of ingredients which they include, the inventors ascribed virtues of all kinds; whereas, from the same reason, we are disposed to deny them *any* virtues. That such compositions are suffered to retain a place, in the latest pharmaceutical works of such a country as France, is a melancholy proof of the slow progress of knowlege, even on those subjects in which the human mind has full scope for free inquiry, and has no fetters imposed on its progress except its own prejudices.

Another circumstance, which impresses us with no very favorable opinion of French medicine, is the number of specifics which are profusely scattered among the pharmaceutical preparations; we find pills, powders, and boluses, to cure every individual disease; and ointments for each individual kind of eruption. That there are substances which possess the power of effecting a particular purpose, by an operation which is not analogous to any other with which we are acquainted, must be admitted by every person who believes in the power of mercury and sulphur: but we always observe that, as knowlege advances, the number of such substances diminishes, both in consequence of our conviction that many supposed virtues are without existence, and because we become enabled, by understanding their operation better, to refer it to some general principle.—We shall not deem it necessary to enter on any long or minute critique on the pharmacopœia: it would indeed be a vast undertaking; and the profit of it would very ill recompence the labor necessarily bestowed on it. In order, however, to give our readers some idea of its nature, and to enable them to compare it with the English pharmacopœia, we shall take one

section,

umerate the articles which it contains, and give a
ount of their ingredients. We select the Pills
imen; and we can safely state that it is one of
oderate in the whole collection, with respect both
ber and the composition of its articles. The first is
ilules de mercure gommeux,' consisting of mercury
n with gum, honey, and liquorice.—'*Pilules mer-*
gatives.' These contain, with the mercury, jalap,
s, scammony, and four other articles.—'*Pilules*
du codex de Paris,' consisting of mercury, sugar,
jalap, and rhubarb. '*Pilules mercurielles, dites de*
isisting of mercury, sugar, scammony, and jalap,
white wine. Another form of mercurial pills is
composed of metallic mercury, corrosive sublimate,
iony, and jalap, rubbed with the syrup of quinces.
politaines, de Renaudot,' contain mercury, aloës,
ammony, agaric, mace, canella, sassafras, and
ilules pour le gravier des reines,' a compound of the
uckbean, annise, and couch-grass, with soap, iron-
, jalap, scammony, squills, and quince syrup; a
eneous mass! '*Pilules purgatives, pour une prise,*'
grains of calomel, 10 of scammony, and 18 of jalap,
th the syrup of peach-flowers. '*Pilules de panacée*

derive their name from the tartarized tincture of iron. — We have alſo a formula for simple soap-pills, and then we arrive at the pills of *Morthon*; the principal ingredient in which is the powder of wood-lice. Next come the tonic pills of *Bacher*, composed of black hellebore, myrrh, and *carduus benedictus*; then the '*pilules antè cibum, ou gourmandes, ou grains de vie, de Mesué*,' composed of aloës, mastic, red roses, and wormwood syrup; and the soap-pills of Stephens. The balsamic pills of *Stahl* and the '*pilules angéliques*' consist, the former of 11, and the latter of 9 vegetable ingredients; the emollient aloetic pills, and Rufus's pills, are more simple in their composition: but their moderation is balanced by the '*pilules fétides majeures, de Mesué, reformées*,' which, notwithstanding their reform, still retain a jumble of 19 substances. A formula is given for pills of dog's tongue by the same *Mesué*, who seems to have been a grand compositor, containing 8 articles; and Galen's storax pills, containing 7. The next in order are *Starkey*'s pills, *Mynsicht*'s alum pills, turpentine pills, stomachic pills, '*pilules catholiques*,' splenetic pills, '*pilules amères fondantes*', *De Haen*'s purgative pills, *De Haen*'s soap pills, and *Rotrou*'s purgative pills; all more moderate in their composition. *Beccher*'s pills, containing 14 ingredients; hysteric pills, containing 9; '*pilules cochées mineures*;' '*pilules cochées majeures, de Rhasis*;' *Helvetius*'s hydragogue pills; *Bontius*'s hydragogue pills; and *Rudius*'s pills, finish this long catalogue. In order to prove that we did not select the pills as being remarkable for their number, we may state that the pharmacopoeia contains 17 troches, 32 confections and electuaries, 17 tisannes, and 50 powders. In short, the pharmacopoeia is in every respect the counterpart of the *materia medica*; and all the remarks that we made on the latter will apply to the former.

We have little more to add respecting this work, but that we have been amused with the perusal of it; and we think that any person, who wishes to acquire an idea of the state of medical science in France, would receive from it information which might answer his purpose: but, with respect to the English practical apothecary, it can be of little use, except to shew him how much preferable his situation is, compared with that of the members of the same profession on the continent.

Itinéraire de Paris à Jerusalem, et de Jerusalem à Paris,
F. A DE CHATEAUBRIAND. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris.
mported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 16s.

Travels in Greece, Palestine, Egypt, and Barbary,
ne Years 1806 and 1807. By F. A. DE CHATEAU-
translated from the French by Frederick Shoberl. 2 Vols.
4s. Boards. Colburn. 1811.

had prepared the French for seeking the colours
quence in objects of natural history: but the
irginia of *Saint-Pierre* was the more immediate
CHATEAUBRIAND's first production; and his *Atala*
success the tale which it aspired to resemble. The
the desert is always striking to the inhabitant of
new; and it is instructive. How much botany,
, and zoology must be studied, to make every
som, every insect crawl, every bird sing, according
in these pictures of such extraordinary regions!
travellers must be read, in order to put together
ls of their scenery in the due proportions of nature!
n this is accomplished, by a learned imagination, in
e of eloquence; — when the landscape of mute ex-
arther embellished and animated by human beings,
the poetic soul of feeling and refinement to the

has nothing of dogmatism; it is the persuasion of feeling and of taste. Through the fine arts, he has learned to venerate the Christian divinities immortalized by Raphael and Michel Angelo:—through the poets and orators, he is become enamoured of the sentiments which successive ages have cherished as the comforters of woe, the soothers of impatience, and the inspirers of beneficence. In short, M. DE CHATEAUBRIAND, in "the Age of Reason," has undertaken a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, has visited with warm devotion the cradle of European religion, has sought baptism in the very waters of the Jordan, and has obtained the characteristic recompence of being created, by the monks of Jerusalem, a Knight of the Holy Sepulchre.

If the cast of M. DE C.'s eloquence had been acquired, for the purpose of writing travels, it is just such as ought to have been his aim; and if the cast of his religious feelings had been assumed, for the purpose of giving interest to his wanderings in Palestine, it is just such as ought to have been adopted. Hence these volumes produce an effect altogether fascinating and romantic. Those reminiscences of celebrity, those glorious recollections which leisure and reading supply, throng so regularly on the spot about a scene which was already coloured into distinctness and vivacity, that the impression of reality is almost abated by the very perfection of the delineation. Instead of jostling among the accidents of nature with a common traveller, we seem to float in the balloon of a magician, and to swoop only at the picked scenery, where Nature and Religion have wrought their miracles, or where Beauty and Fame repose.

The present travels are ushered in by two introductory memoirs, of which the first respects the historical geography of Athens and Sparta; and the second is devoted to that of Palestine.

Some points of ecclesiastical history are examined: we suspect incorrectness in the proposition at p. 81. that the same Simeon, who succeeded James, as head of the Christian church at Jerusalem, lived to suffer martyrdom under Trajan. He was the son of Gamaliel by the daughter of Cleopas. The account of Simeon's martyrdom, given in the thirty-second chapter of the third book of Eusebius, is a quotation from Hegesippus, which plainly relates to a martyrdom inflicted, under Vespasian, when the house of David (Euseb. *Hist. Eccl.* III. c. 12.) was proscribed. The inference of Eusebius, not the document of Hegesippus, places the event under Trajan, who was no persecutor of Christians; and this rash inference compels Eusebius to ascribe a life of at least one hundred and twenty years to Simeon, whom the Rabbies, on the contrary, describe as perishing at the destruction of Jerusalem, in the flower of his age.

The journey of M. CHATEAUBRIAND is divided into three main segments; of which the first relates to Greece, and exactly occupies the first volume. The track is so beaten, that perhaps the recent facts, which throw light on the present state of the government of the country, are the most valuable parts. Such is the horrible instance (Vol. i. p. 122.) of the fate of a beautiful young woman, an orphan; who, having been sent by her relatives to Constantinople, came back at the age of eighteen to her native village of Saint-Paul, on the gulf of Argos. She had acquired easy manners, could speak Turkish, French, and Italian, brought home with her a decent competency, and received any passing gentleman-stranger with an hospitality which rendered her virtue suspicious. The inhabitants thought that such a woman was a disgrace to their town; they therefore murdered her, and went to the Pacha to carry him the price of the blood of a Christian. This atrocious assassination was a fresh topic of conversation in Saint Paul: but it was not the murder which was censured, but the avidity of the Pacha, who, instead of accepting the usual compensation, hinted that the youth, beauty, and accomplishments of the deceased warranted him to expect more considerable hush-money.

Argos is in the same state in which Chandler described it in 1756. It shewed traces of declension even in the time of Julian; who pleaded the cause of the country of Agamemnon, and endeavoured to get the rates diminished at which it was assessed to the Olympic games. The widow of a Venetian merchant became sole proprietress of the dominions of Clytemnestra in the middle age, and sold them to the republic for an annuity of 200 ducats and a gratuity of 500. Coronelli has preserved the contract. — Everywhere else, a similar desertion and desolation are observable.

We hasten to the second volume, at the beginning of which the traveller crosses the Archipelago. He missed Troy, by untoward accidents, but visited a part of Natolia which had been rarely explored; forded the Sousonghirli, formerly the Granicus; reached Constantinople; and there embarked with some Greek pilgrims in a vessel which touched at Rhodes, and landed its passengers at Jaffa.

Mount Carmel was the first visible promontory of the Holy Land. The author's approach to Jerusalem is not delineated with all the glow of feeling which bursts from the Christian army in Tasso, but is a lively, picturesque, and impressive sweep of narration. We shall prefer, however, to extract the sketch of Bethlehem; a spot which has been less frequently described, and is not less illustrative of important incidents in Scripture-history.—We quote from Mr. Shoberl's translation:

'The convent of Bethlehem is connected with the church by a court inclosed with lofty walls. We crossed this court, and were admitted by a small side-door into the church. The edifice is certainly of high antiquity, and, though often destroyed and as often repaired, it still retains marks of its Grecian origin. It is built in the form of a cross. The long nave, or, if you please, the foot of the cross, is adorned with forty-eight columns of the Corinthian order, in four rows. These columns are two feet six inches in diameter at the base, and eighteen feet high, including the base and capital. As the roof of this nave is wanting, the columns support nothing but a frieze of wood, which occupies the place of the architrave and of the whole entablature. Open timber-work rests upon the walls, and rises into the form of a dome, to support a roof that no longer exists, or that perhaps was never finished. The wood-work is said to be of cedar, but this is a mistake. The windows are large, and were formerly adorned with mosaic paintings, and passages from the Bible in Greek and Latin characters, the traces of which are yet visible. Most of these inscriptions are given by Quaresmius. The Abbé Mariti notices, with some acrimony, a mistake of that learned friar in one of the dates: a person of the greatest abilities is liable to error, but he who blazons it without delicacy or politeness, affords a much stronger proof of his vanity than of his knowledge.

'The remains of the mosaics to be seen here and there, and some paintings on wood, are interesting to the history of the arts; they in general exhibit figures in full face, upright, stiff, without motion and without shadows: but their effect is majestic, and their character dignified and austere.

'The Christian sect of the Arminians is in possession of the nave which I have just described. This nave is separated from the three other branches of the cross by a wall, so that the unity of the edifice is destroyed. When you have passed this wall, you find yourself opposite to the sanctuary, or the choir, which occupies the top of the cross. This choir is raised two steps above the nave. Here is seen an altar dedicated to the Wise Men of the East. On the pavement at the foot of this altar you observe a marble star, which corresponds, as tradition asserts, with the point of the heavens where the miraculous star that conducted the three kings became stationary. So much is certain, that the spot where the Saviour of the world was born, is exactly underneath this marble star in the subterraneous church of the manger, of which I shall presently have occasion to speak. The Greeks occupy the choir of the Magi, as well as the two other naves formed by the transom of the cross. These last are empty, and without altars.

'Two spiral staircases, each composed of fifteen steps, open on the sides of the outer church, and conduct to the subterraneous church situated beneath this choir. This is the ever-to-be revered place of the nativity of our Saviour. Before I entered it, the superior put a

taper

taper into my hand, and repeated a brief exhortation. This sacred crypt is irregular, because it occupies the irregular site of the stable and the manger. It is thirty-seven feet six inches long, eleven feet three inches broad, and nine feet in height. It is hewn out of the rock; the sides of the rock are faced with beautiful marble, and the floor is of the same material. These embellishments are ascribed to St. Helena. The church receives no light from without, and is illumined by thirty-two lamps, sent by different princes of Christendom. At the farther extremity of this crypt, on the east side, is the spot where the Virgin brought forth the Redeemer of mankind. This spot is marked by a white marble, incrusted with jasper, and surrounded by a circle of silver, having rays resembling those with which the sun is represented. Around it are inscribed these words:

‘ HIC DE VIRGINE MARIA
‘ JESUS CHRISTUS NATUS EST.

‘ A marble table, which serves for an altar, rests against the side of the rock, and stands over the place where the Messiah came into the world. This altar is lighted by three lamps, the handsomest of which was given by Louis XIII.

‘ At the distance of seven paces towards the south, after you have passed the foot of one of the stair-cases leading to the upper church, you find the manger. You go down to it by two steps, for it is not upon a level with the rest of the crypt. It is a low recess, hewn out of the rock. A block of white marble, raised about a foot above the floor, and hollowed in the form of a manger, indicates the very spot where the Sovereign of Heaven was laid upon straw.

‘ Two paces farther, opposite to the manger, stands an altar, which occupies the place where Mary sat when she presented the Child of Sorrows to the adoration of the Magi.

‘ Nothing can be more pleasing, or better calculated to excite sentiments of devotion, than this subterraneous church. It is adorned with pictures of the Italian and Spanish schools. These pictures represent the mysteries of the place, the Virgin and Child after Raphael, the Annunciation, the Adoration of the Wise Men, the coming of the Shepherds, and all those miracles of mingled grandeur and innocence. The usual ornaments of the manger are of blue satin embroidered with silver. Incence is continually smoking before the cradle of the Saviour. I have heard an organ, touched by no ordinary hand, play, during mass, the sweetest and most tender tunes of the best Italian composers. These concerts charm the Christian Arab, who, leaving his camels to feed, repairs like the shepherds of old to Bethlehem, to adore the King of Kings in his manger. I have seen this inhabitant of the desert communicate at the altar of the Magi, with a fervour, a piety, a devotion unknown among the Christians of the west. “ No place in the world,” says Father Neret, “ excites more profound devotion. The continual arrival of caravans from all the nations of Christendom; the public prayers; the prostrations; nay, even the richness of the presents sent hither by the Christian princes, altogether produce feelings in the soul which it is much easier to conceive than to describe.”

'It may be added, that the effect of all this is heightened by an extraordinary contrast; for on quitting the crypt, where you have met with the riches, the arts, the religion of civilized nations, you find yourself in a profound solitude, amidst wretched Arab huts, among half naked savages and faithless Mussulmans. This place is, nevertheless, the same where so many miracles were displayed; but this sacred land dares no longer express its joy, and locks within its bosom the recollections of its glory.

'From the grotto of the Nativity we went to the subterraneous chapel, where tradition places the sepulchre of the Innocents: "Herod sent forth and slew all the children that were in Bethlehem, and in all the coasts thereof, from two years old and under. Then was fulfilled that which was spoken by Jeremie the prophet, saying: In Rama was there a voice heard," &c.

'The chapel of the Innocents conducted us to the grotto of St. Jerome. Here you find the sepulchre of this father of the church, that of Eusebius, and the tombs of St. Paula and St. Eustochium.

'In this grotto St. Jerome spent the greater part of his life. From this retirement he beheld the fall of the Roman empire, and here he received those fugitive patricians, who, after they had possessed the palaces of the earth, deemed themselves happy to share the cell of a cenobite. The peace of the saint and the troubles of the world produce a wonderful effect in the letters of the learned commentator on the Scriptures.'—

'We returned to our convent, and I surveyed the country from the top of a terrace. Bethlehem is built on a hill which overlooks a long valley, running from east to west. The southern hill is covered with olive-trees, thinly scattered over a reddish soil bestrewed with stones; that on the north side has fig-trees on the same kind of soil. Here and there you perceive some ruins; among others, the remains of a tower called the Tower of St. Paula. I went back into the monastery, which owes part of its wealth to Baldwin, King of Jerusalem, and successor to Godfrey of Bouillon: it is an absolute fortress, and its walls are so thick that it would be capable of sustaining a siege against the Turks.

'The escort of Arabs having arrived, I prepared for my expedition to the Red Sea. Whilst breakfasting with the religious who formed a circle round me, they informed me that there was in the convent a father who was a native of France. He was sent for: he came with downcast looks, both his hands in his sleeves, and walking with a solemn pace: he saluted me coldly and in few words. Never did I hear in a foreign country the sound of a French voice without emotion. I asked him some questions, and he informed me that his name was Father Clement; that he was a native of the vicinity of Mayenne; that being in a monastery in Bretagne, he had been transported with about a hundred other priests like himself, to Spain, where he had been hospitably received in a convent of his order, and afterwards sent by his superiors as a missionary to the Holy Land. I asked him if he should not like to revisit his country, and if he had any letters to send to his family. His answer was, word for word, as follows: — "Who is there that still remembers me in France? How should I know whether any of my brothers and sisters be yet living? I hope to obtain, through the merits of my Saviour, the strength to die here without troubling any body, and without thinking of a country which I have forgotten."

'Father Clement was obliged to retire; my presence had revived in his heart sentiments which he was striving to extinguish. Such is the destiny of man. A Frenchman is, at this day, mourning the loss of his country on the same shores, the remembrance of which formerly inspired the most sublime of songs on the love of country. But those sons of Aaron, who hung their harps on the willows of Babylon, did not all return to the city of David; those daughters of Judea, who on the banks of the Euphrates exclaimed:

'O shores of Jordan! plains belov'd of Heav'n!

those companions of Esther, were not all destined to revisit Emmaus and Bethel: the remains of many of them were left behind in the land of their captivity.

'At ten in the morning, we mounted our horses and set out from Bethlehem. Six Bethlehemite Arabs on foot, armed with daggers and long matchlocks formed our escort: three of them marched before and three behind. We had added to our cavalry an ass, which carried water and provisions. We pursued the way that leads to the monastery of St. Saba, whence we were afterwards to descend to the Dead Sea and to return by the Jordan.

'We first followed the valley of Bethlehem, which, as I have observed, stretches away to the east. We passed a ridge of hills, where you see, on the right, a vineyard recently planted, a circumstance too rare in this country for me not to remark it. We arrived at a grot called the Grotto of the Shepherds. The Arabs still give it the appellation of Dta el Natour, the Village of the Shepherds. It is said that Abraham here fed his flocks, and that on this spot the shepherds of Judea were informed by the angel of the birth of the Saviour.'

Perhaps it is this grotto of the shepherds, not the marble manger of St. Helena's church, which was the real place of the nativity of Jesus. The nature of the land facilitates and invites the scooping of caverns; now if the stable of the inn or caravanseray at Bethlehem was a grotto of this description, it would accord equally with the evangelical narrative, with the very early account of James in the Protevangelium, and with the testimony of Justin Martyr. Some place, which served as a stable, and which might with equal propriety be termed a grotto, can alone be accommodated to the several statements.

In the pilgrimage through Jerusalem, M. DE CHATEAUBRIAND quotes from *Massillon* many eloquent passages concerning the events which the several stations recall to mind. Little new light, however, is thrown on these incidents by any geographical notices which are here collected: indeed, the book is too learnedly constructed to allow of the reader being always certain whether the writer describes from eye-sight or from authority. The assertions of erudition and the completions of inference mingle with the notices of actual observation. Concerning the sepulchres of the kings, however, we find some new matter:

'The monuments of Grecian and Roman Jerusalem are very numerous; they form a class perfectly new and very remarkable in the arts. I shall begin with the tombs in the valley of Jehoshaphat and in the valley of Siloe.

'Having passed the bridge over the brook Cedron, you come to the sepulchre of Absalom at the foot of the Mount of Offence. It is a square mass, measuring eight feet each way; composed of a single rock hewn from the neighbouring hill, from which it stands only fifteen feet detached. The ornaments of this sepulchre consist of twenty-four semi-columns of the Doric order, not fluted, six on each front of the monument. These columns form an integral part of the block, having been cut out of the same mass with it. On the capital is the frieze, with the triglyph, and above the frieze rises a socle, which supports a triangular pyramid too lofty for the total height of the tomb. The pyramid is not of the same piece as the rest of the monument.

'The sepulchre of Zachariah very nearly resembles that just described. It is hewn out of the rock in the same manner, and terminates in a point, bending a little back, like the Phrygian cap, or a Chinese monument. The sepulchre of Jehoshaphat is a grot, the door of which, in a very good style, is its principal ornament. Lastly, the sepulchre in which St. James the Apostle concealed himself has a handsome portico. The four columns which compose it do not rest upon the ground, but are placed at a certain height in the rock, in the same manner as the colonnade of the Louvre rises from the first story of that palace.

'Tradition, as the reader may see, assigns names to these tombs. Arcurfe, in Adamannus (*De Locis Sanctis*, lib. i. c. 10.); Villalpandus (*Antiquæ Jerusalem Descriptio*); Adrichomius (*Sententia de Loco Sepulchri Absalon*); Quaresmius (tom. ii. c. 4, 5.), and several others, have treated of these names, and exhausted historical criticism on the subject. But though tradition were not in this instance contradicted by facts, the architecture of these monuments would prove that their origin cannot date so far back as the earliest period of Jewish antiquity.

'If I were required to fix precisely the age in which these mausoleums were erected, I should place it about the time of the alliance between the Jews and the Lacedæmonians, under the first Maccabees. The Doric order was still prevalent in Greece; the Corinthian did not supplant it till half a century later, when the Romans began to overrun the Peloponnese and Asia *.

'* Thus we find at this latter period a Corinthian portico in the Temple rebuilt by Herod, columns with Greek and Latin inscriptions, gates of Corinthian copper, &c.—*Joseph.* (book vi. c. 14.)

'But in naturalizing at Jerusalem the architecture of Corinth and Athens, the Jews intermixed with it the forms of their peculiar style. The tombs in the valley of Jehoshaphat, and particularly those of which I shall presently speak, display a manifest alliance of the Egyptian and Grecian taste. From this alliance resulted a heterogeneous kind of monuments, forming, as it were, the link between the Pyramids and the Parthenon; monuments in which you discover a sombre, bold and gigantic genius, and a pleasing, sober, and well-regulated imagination *. A beautiful illustration of this truth will be seen in the Sepulchres of the Kings.

'Leaving Jerusalem by the Gate of Ephraim, and proceeding for about half a mile along the level surface of a reddish rock, with a few olive-trees growing upon it, you arrive in the middle of a field at an excavation which bears a great resemblance to the neglected works of an old quarry. A broad road conducts you by an easy descent to the further end of this excavation, which you enter by an arcade. You then find yourself in an uncovered hall cut out of the rock. This hall is thirty feet long by twenty broad, and the sides of the rock may be about twelve or fifteen feet in height.

'In the centre of the south wall you perceive a large square door, of the Doric order, sunk to the depth of several feet in the rock. A frieze, rather whimsical, but exquisitely delicate, is sculptured above the door: it consists, first, of a triglyph, then comes a metope adorned with a simple ring, and afterwards a bunch of grapes between two crowns and two palm branches. The triglyph is represented, and the line was doubtless carried in the same manner along the rock; but it is now effaced. At the distance of eighteen inches from this frieze runs a wreath of foliage intermixed with pine-apples and another fruit which I could not make out, but which resembles a small Egyptian lemon. This last decoration followed parallel to the frieze, and afterwards descended perpendicularly down both sides of the door.

'In the recess, and in the angle to the left of this great portico, opens a passage in which people formerly walked erect, but where you are now obliged to crawl on your hands and knees. Like that in the great pyramid, it leads, by a very steep descent, to a square chamber, hewn out of the rock. Holes six feet long and three broad are made in the walls, or rather in the sides of this chamber, for the reception of coffins. Three arched doors conduct from this first chamber into seven other sepulchral apartments of different dimensions, all excavated out of the solid rock; but it is a difficult matter to seize their plan, especially by the light of torches. One of these grots, which is lower than the others, having a descent of six steps, seems to have contained the principal coffins. These were generally ranged in the following manner:- the most distinguished personage was deposited at the farther end of the grot, facing the entrance, in the niche or case prepared for the purpose; and in either side of the door a small vault was reserved for the less illustrious dead, who thus seemed to guard those kings who had no further occasion for their services. The

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'* Thus under Francis I. the Greek architecture, blended with the Gothic style, produced some exquisite works.'

coffins, of which only fragments are to be seen, were of stone and ornamented with elegant arabesques.

'Nothing is so much admired in these tombs as the doors of the sepulchral chambers. These, as well as the hinges and pivots on which they turned, were of the same stone as the grot. Almost all travellers have imagined that they were cut out of the rock itself, but this is evidently impossible, as Father Nau has clearly demonstrated. Thevenot assures us "that upon scraping away the dust a little, you may perceive the joinings of the stones, placed there after the doors with their pivots were fixed in the holes." Though I scraped away the dust, I could perceive none of these marks at the lower part of the only door that remains standing; all the others being broken in pieces and thrown into the grots.

'On entering these palaces of death, I was tempted to take them for baths of Roman architecture, such as those of the Sibyl's Cave, near Lake Avernus. I here allude only to the general effect, in order to make myself understood; for I well knew the purpose to which they had been appropriated. Arculfe (*apud Adaman.*), who has described them with great accuracy, saw bones in the coffins. Several centuries afterwards, Villamant found in them remains of the same kind, that are now sought in vain. Three pyramids, one of which still existed in the time of Villalpandus, marked externally the situation of this subterraneous monument. I know not what to think of Zuellard and Appart, who describe exterior buildings and vestibules.

'One question occurs concerning these tombs denominated the Sepulchres of the Kings—what kings are meant? From several passages of Scripture, we find that the tombs of the kings of Judah were in the city of Jerusalem; "And Ahaz slept with his fathers, and they buried him in the city, even in Jerusalem." * David had his sepulchre on Mount Sion: besides, traces of the Greek chisel are discernible in the ornaments of the Sepulchres of the Kings.

'Josephus, to whom we must have recourse, mentions three celebrated mausoleums. The first was the tomb of the Maccabees, erected by their brother Simon. "It was," says Josephus, in his Jewish Antiquities, "of white and polished marble, so lofty that it could be seen at a very great distance. All around are vaults in the form of porticoes; each of the columns which support them is of a single stone: and in commemoration of these seven persons he added seven pyramids of very great height and wonderful beauty."

'The first book of the Maccabees gives nearly the same particulars concerning this tomb; adding that it was built at Modin, and "might be seen of all that sail on the sea." Modin was a town situated near Diospolis, on a hill of the tribe of Judah. In the time of Eusebius, and even in that of St. Jerome, the monument of the Maccabees was still in existence. The Sepulchres of the Kings at the gate of Jerusalem,

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'* The author seems to have been particularly unfortunate in his choice of this passage for the purpose of supporting the preceding assertion; since it is immediately added: "but they brought him not into the sepulchres of the kings of Israel."—T.

notwithstanding their seven sepulchral chambers and the pyramids with which they were crowned, cannot have belonged to the Asmonean princes.

'Josephus afterwards informs us that Helena, Queen of Adiabene, caused three funeral pyramids to be erected at the distance of two stadia from Jerusalem, and that her remains and those of her son Izates were there deposited by the care of Monabazes. The same historian, in his narrative of the Jewish war, tracing the limits of the Holy City, says that the walls passed to the north opposite to the sepulchre of Helena. All this exactly applies to the Sepulchres of the Kings, which, according to Villalpandus, were adorned with three pyramids, and which are yet to be seen to the north of Jerusalem, at the distance specified by Josephus. St. Jerome also speaks of this sepulchre. The writers who have bestowed their attention on the monument under examination, have overlooked a curious passage in Pausanias *: but who would think of Pausanias in treating of Jerusalem! This passage is as follows:

"The second tomb was at Jerusalem. It was the burial-place of a Jewess, named Helena. The door of the tomb, which was of marble, as well as all the rest, opened of itself, on a certain day of the year and at a certain hour, by means of a mechanical contrivance, and shut again soon after. At any other time, had you tried, you would sooner have broken it in pieces than opened it."

'This door, which opened and shut of itself by a mechanical contrivance, might, setting aside the touch of the marvellous, almost apply to the extraordinary doors of the Sepulchres of the Kings. Suidas and Stephen of Byzantium speak concerning an Itinerary of Phœnicia and Syria, published by Pausanias. If we had this work we should doubtless find it of great assistance in elucidating the subject before us.

'The passages of the Jewish historian and the Greek traveller, taken together, would therefore seem to afford satisfactory evidence that the Sepulchres of the Kings are no other than the tomb of Helena: but in this conjecture we are checked by the knowledge of the existence of a third monument.

'Josephus mentions certain grottos, which, according to the literal translation, he denominates the Royal Caverns; but, unfortunately, he gives no description of them. He places them to the north of the Holy City, quite close to the tomb of Helena.

'It remains then to be ascertained what prince it was who caused these caverns of death to be excavated, how they were decorated, and the remains of what monarchs were there deposited. Josephus, who enumerates with such care the works undertaken or completed by Herod the Great, has not included among these works the Sepulchres of the Kings. He even informs us that Herod, having died at Je-

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'* I have since found that it is mentioned by the Abbé Guenée in the excellent Memoirs of which I have already spoken. He says that he purposes to examine this passage in another memoir; he has not done so, which is much to be regretted.'

riche,

richo, was interred with great magnificence at Herodium; consequently the Royal Caverns were not the burial-place of that prince. An expression, however, which has elsewhere dropped from the historian, may throw some light on this discussion.

'Speaking of the wall which Titus erected to press Jerusalem still more closely than before, he says, that this wall, returning towards the north, enclosed the Sepulchre of Herod. Now this is the situation of the Royal Caverns: these must, therefore, have been indiscriminately called the Royal Caverns, and the Sepulchre of Herod. In this case, this Herod could not be Herod the Ascalonite, but Herod the tetrarch. The latter prince was almost as magnificent as his father: he built two towns, Sephoris and Tiberias; and though he was exiled to Lyons by Caligula, he might nevertheless have prepared a tomb for himself in his native land. His brother Philip had furnished a model for these sepulchral edifices.

'We know nothing of the monuments with which Agrippa embellished Jerusalem.

'Such are the most satisfactory particulars that I have been able to meet with relative to this question. I have thought it right to enter into the discusson, because the subject has been rather obscured than elucidated by preceding critics. The ancient pilgrims, who saw the sepulchre of Helena, have confounded it with the Royal Caverns. The modern travellers being unable to find the tomb of the Queen of Adiabene, have given the name of that tomb to the sepulchres of the princes of the house of Herod. From all these accounts has resulted a strange confusion—a confusion increased by the erudition of the pious writers who will have it that the Royal Grots are the burial-place of the kings of Judah, and have not wanted authorities to produce in support of their opinion.

'A critical consideration of the state of the arts, as well as historical facts, obliges us to class the Sepulchres of the Kings among the Greek monuments at Jerusalem. These sepulchres were extremely numerous, and the posterity of Herod very soon became extinct, so that many of these receptacles waited in vain for their tenants. Nothing more was wanting to convince me of all the vanity of our nature, than to behold the tombs of persons who were never born. For the rest, nothing can form a more singular contrast than the charming frieze wrought by the Grecian chisel over the door of these awful mansions, where once reposed the ashes of the Herods. The most tragic ideas are connected with the memory of these princes; we know little of them, except from the murder of Mariamne, the massacre of the Innocents, the death of St. John Baptist, and the condemnation of Jesus Christ. Little would you then expect to find their tombs embellished with light garlands in the midst of the terrific site of Jerusalem, not far from that Temple where Jehovah gave his tremendous oracles, and near the grotto where Jeremiah composed his Lamentations.'

The third volume begins with a very interesting commentary on the Jerusalem of Tasso, in which his general geographical accuracy is established, but his mistakes in some particulars are indicated. So fine a poem deserved so sympathetic and so accomplished an annotator.—Then follows a visit to Ægypt, and to Barbary, whence the author returns home through Spain. An appendix of instructive papers fills up this final volume, which is certainly the least interesting of the three: but M. Chateaubriand is never dull, even when he talks of himself. Notwithstanding his incessant egotism,—his French affectation of an overstrained sensibility, which is always either in extasy or in agony,—and his egregious vanity,—he delights by a completeness of picturesque expression, which brings before the mind's eye every remarkable feature, natural or artificial, of the region visited; and by a selection of erudite information, which attaches to the picture of the present condition the historical recollection of the past. The pilgrim of a classical enthusiasm, he carries in his hand the taper of piety, to obtain a more scrutinizing view of the holy images and mysterious crypts under the custody of the monastic guardians; and he has repaid to religion the exacted service, by this valuable illustration of her territorial and monumental antiquities. His glowing eloquence must warm even the sceptic to applause; and his pages, like Belinda's cross, "the Jew may kiss, the Infidel adore."

The translation by Mr.Shoberl is in general executed with propriety, but bears marks of haste, and does not entirely rival the polished diction and elaborate splendor of the original; of which the three volumes have been compressed into two. At p. 382. of the first volume, an unlucky blunder occurs in the note. M. de Chateaubriand says (Vol.II. p.137.) that the tradition, which supposes Jeremiah to have been born in the village called by his name, will not stand its ground against criticism: but the reverse is asserted in the English note, viz. that 'this popular tradition is not inconsistent with criticism.' Moreover, in the appendix to the second volume, the curious itinerary from Bordeaux to Jerusalem, a document prior to the year 1300, has been omitted.—These, however, are pardonable faults. The general fidelity both of the translation and of the references renders it desirable that the same hand should undertake the other works of M. de Chateaubriand, which are adapted for readers of taste and piety.

ART. VIII. *Histoire de l'administration*, &c. &c.; *i. e.* A History of the Progress of the Art of War, by XAVIER AUDOUIN.

(*Article concluded from the last Appendix*, p. 511.)

OUR review of M. AUDOUIN's voluminous performance has been already brought down to the boasted æra of Louis XIV. We must not flatter ourselves with finding him, as he proceeds, either less diffuse or more sprightly than in the early part of his work: but his access to official documents, and his indefatigable spirit of research, are productive of communications of considerable utility, and intitled in some degree to the attention of our readers.

The slow progress in the exchange of the antient armour for the musket was remarkable so late as the first part of the reign of Louis XIV. Old officers thought that they had conceded a great deal in permitting one half of the French troops to be armed on the new plan; the consequence of which was that, while this half was good for very little but attacks, the other half was accustomed to confine itself to the defensive. It is singular that the Germans, who are in general so much wedded to old routine, should have taken the lead of the French in this respect: but the impetuosity of the latter could never be properly reconciled to fire-arms, till the fire-lock was made of a much lighter shape than on its first adoption. This improvement took place under Louis XIV., and was followed, gradually, by the introduction of the bayonet. So imperfect was the first mode of using the bayonet that, instead of being screwed on the outside of the barrel of the musket, it was fixed in the inside, and was regularly taken out on firing. At the battle of Steinkerk, a great part of the French infantry was armed with pikes and heavy muskets, and became first accustomed to the fire-lock and bayonet by stripping them from the slain of the allies. The consequence of the adoption of the bayonet was to render unnecessary those thickened ranks of infantry, which were calculated for the use of so long a weapon as the pike. In the cavalry, the change produced was of an opposite nature. Armed with a long lance, the horsemen of former days could attack only in a single line; and, having no chance against solid bodies of infantry defended by projecting pikes, they confined their operations, in a great measure, to the cavalry of the enemy. After having adopted fire-arms, they were formed into squadrons, and rode to the attack in several lines; but, finding that the infantry still retained great advantages, particularly by occupying a much smaller space of ground, the formation of a body of dragoons, or of foot-soldiers carried on horseback, took place. This name, attributed by some to a fantastic origin, is in fact derived from the German, *dragen*, to carry. In addition to a sword and fire-arms, they took with them, at the saddle-bow, a hatchet or shovel to clear the way for the army. Posted in front of a camp, they were the foremost in the charge. During several years, they were considered as belonging to the infantry: but, before the end of Louis XIV.'s reign, their constitution had approximated to its present state, and they were accounted a part of the cavalry.

It has become so common among our sprightly writers to ridicule the military force of the Dutch, that few among us are aware that, in the middle ages, the Batavian knights ranked among the most formidable horsemen in Europe. In later times, Prince Maurice of Nassau was considered as the ablest General of his age; and his brother, Frederic Henry, attained considerable eminence as a writer on tactics. Maurice and Gustavus Adolphus were the first Generals, in modern days, who applied to the practice of war the knowlege derived from the study of the antients. The effect of cannon was during some time so much dreaded, as to prevent all recourse to artificial positions of defence: but, when intrenched camps were adopted, the Dutch were consulted as most skilful in this branch of tactics. — It was under Louis XIV., towards the close of the seventeenth century, that the projection of hand-grenades was introduced; a service of so much danger, in the rude state of the science of artillery, as to require the most intrepid among the soldiery, who thence received the name of Grenadiers. This epoch was, likewise, the beginning of the formation of those vast armies which have, in every subsequent war, borne so hard on European population. After the death of *Colbert*, the forces of the kingdom, which had been confined by his prudence to 160,000 men, were more than doubled; and Marshal *Luxemburg* was the first French General who saw himself at the head of what we may term a "host of modern warriors." From this commander's predilection for numerous bodies of men, we may safely infer that he had not been educated in the school of *Turenne*; yet he was an able General, and might have added greatly to the renown of Louis XIV. had he remained longer in favour. *Vauban*, likewise, one of the greatest ornaments of his age, — who, in the words of *Fontenelle*, "was the best of citizens as well as the first of engineers," — was allowed to pass his latter years in obscurity. M. AUDOUIN is no admirer of the *Grand Monarque*, whom he charges with manifesting, throughout his whole career, striking proofs of bad education and constitutional haughtiness: but the last fifteen years of this eventful reign call forth a redoubled portion of his invective. That æra belongs, he says, to the annals of women; since the monarch, during the whole of it, was governed by the caprices of the superstitious and vindictive *Maintenon.* It was she, he adds, who caused the retirement of the best officers, and the employment of worthless favourites, together with persecutions and sanguinary wars of religion. At last, the long desired peace arrived, to heal the wounds of France. Under the regency of the Duke of Orléans, nothing occurs in a military point of view, to attract attention; and M. Audouin might have passed over the period without wandering into digressions on such subjects as the plague of Marseilles, the financial chimæras of *Law*, or the daring intrigues of *Albéroni.* It is to these aberrations into civil matters, and to the endless minutiæ of detail on military points, that we must ascribe the bulk and tediousness of the book.

The long administration of Cardinal *Fleury* was proverbially pacific, and as little remarkable for improvements in the civil as for exploits in the military branch of the service. At the time of the cardinal's death in 1743, a vacancy having occurred in the ministry at war, it was filled by *Pierre*, Comte *d'Argenson*; who remained in office during fourteen years, and obtained a reputation inferior only to that of *Louvois.* Nothing, however, could be more opposite than the motives which actuated these two ministers. *Louvois*, a calculating politician, considered the soldier as a mere machine for war: while *d'Argenson*, a warm man, was attached to the military above all classes of society, and found an uninterrupted pleasure in contributing to the improvement of their situation. It is of importance to distinguish him from other ministers of the same name, who preceded him in different branches of the public service, and acted their parts with much less reputation. On Marshal *Saxe's* campaigns, M. Audouin is little disposed to enlarge, though he does not pass over the battle of Fontenoy without remarking how far the knowlege of the art of war was at that epoch behind the present day. He takes occasion, at the same time, to deplore the melancholy increase in the number of victims under the existing system of this fatal art; the joint loss at that battle, which was accounted among the most sanguinary of the war, not exceeding 8000 killed and wounded. Louis XV., accompanied by the Dauphin, went over the scene of blood soon after the engagement, and was much affected with the heart-rending sight: but, however commendable his feelings might be at the moment, he possessed neither vigour nor principle sufficient to make them influence his future conduct.

After the treaty of 1748, the peace-establishment of France amounted to 140,000 foot-soldiers and 27,000 horsemen. The inadequate proportion of the latter was owing, not to want of predilection on the part of Frenchmen for the service, but to the embarrassed state of the finances. *D'Argenson* embraced the opportunity afforded by this pacific interval, to carry into effect various institutions for the improvement of the condition of the soldier. He completely new-modelled the hospitals; and, being convinced of the necessity of a purely military seminary for the formation of officers, he was the institutor of the famous *Ecole militaire* which was destined one day to send forth *Bonaparte* to the field. Its plan was to supply board and education to five hundred youths, the sons of military men of good family; a preference being given to the orphans of officers killed in action.—Among the minor objects of *D'Argenson's* care, may be mentioned the introduction of the havresack, for the carriage of the soldier's clothes and provisions. Being made of rough leather, it was both more durable and less liable to wet than the canvas bags formerly used.—If *Louvois* improved the condition of the army as a body, *D'Argenson* may be said to have introduced comfort into every regiment, and to have been the creator of a kind of family-government, of which a person would hardly have thought that the military state was susceptible. It was during his ministry that it first became customary to make to besieged garrisons the offer of returning home on parole; a practice which has often tended to abridge a hopeless defence. The public roads in France, also, were greatly improved by the Comte *D'Argenson*. They had been neglected to a degree which in the present day we should find difficulty in believing; and in this respect, as in the formation of intrenchments, the example of the Dutch was of great use to their neighbours.

The next minister of note in the war department was the Duke *de Choiseul*. He united with its duties those of the ministry of marine, and of the secretaryship for foreign affairs; yet such was his energy and regularity, that all these various details went on with method and dispatch. The bad management of the war of 1756 is attributed by M. AUDOUIN to the weakness of the king, and the capricious interference of Madame *de Pompadour*. Shackled as *Choiseul* was, the author considers him as having effected much. On the conclusion of peace in 1763, the army was reduced to the old establishment of 160,000 men; of whom not fewer than eleven regiments, forming twenty-six battalions, were Swiss. Well may it be said that the history of the French army is an apt illustration of the slow progress of improvement, when we find that, down to so late a period as *Choiseul's* ministry, the arming, clothing, and even recruiting for each company, were all executed on the account of the captain. It is needless to add that the recruiting, or rather crimping, thus carried on, was productive of the most disgusting excesses. Men were entrapped by all kinds of fraud, and hurried not unfrequently into foreign service, particularly into the Prussian, the common receptacle of recruits of every nation and character. Captains also were accustomed to report and receive pay for a greater number than their companies actually contained, and considered their commission in the nature of a lease, to be turned to the utmost possible profit. Looking only to number, they made little difficulty in granting discharges to experienced soldiers, whenever a recruit was at hand to replace them; so that a great proportion of the French troops were raw levies, till the Duke *de Choiseul* fixed a soldier's engagement at eight years. Those who re-enlisted on the expiration of that period were intitled, at the end of sixteen years, to half-pay and clothing; and if they were enabled to go through a third period of eight years' service, they retired with whole pay and clothing.

Seldom does history make mention of a King more averse to business, or more unacquainted with the affairs of his kingdom, than Louis XV. In the early part of his reign, he left every thing to Cardinal *Fleury*; and latterly he withdrew his residence from his capital, and secluded himself at Versailles. It was in vain that *Choiseul* endeavoured to prevail on him, at a moment of national enthusiasm, to exert himself to form a powerful marine. To a very animated address on this subject, Louis's answer was, "My dear *Choiseul*, you are as great a fool as your predecessors. They all told me that we must have a marine; now I foresee plainly that France will never be able to keep any other marine than that which is painted for her by *Vernet*." — *Choiseul* received his dismission in December 1770, and was succeeded by the Marquis *de Monteynard*, an upright character, but without talents to maintain the public interest against the venal intrigues of Madame *Dubarry* and the Abbé *Terrai*. Among other schemes of depredation which were put in execution by these plunderers of the country, was the separation of the two branches of the ministry at war, called in France the "*materiel*" and the "*personnel*." The former comprehended the army-expenditure in all its branches, whether for pay, provisions, barracks, &c.; the latter related to the personal service of officers and soldiers, their promotion, their subordination, and their military constitution in general. The division resembles the distinction established among ourselves by the separate labours of the War-office and the Commander-in-Chief's-office. Nothing can be more proper than the discrimination of duties so distinct in themselves: but the object of the court of Louis XV. was merely to get the army-purchases into their hands, and to complete their system of robbing the public in all kinds of markets. The nefarious practice of buying provisions with the national money, to sell again at a profit, was prosecuted during the remaining years of the King; and it is remarkable that, on the very day after his death, (May 1774,) the price of grain underwent a fall, *Terrai* finding it necessary to come forwards as a seller, and to replace in the treasury the money which was formerly employed, by the King's order, in enhancing the price of bread to his subjects. The French people, always caught by outside appearances, ascribed the fall of the markets to skilful management on the part of the minister; a circumstance which, joined to other intrigues, enabled him to keep his place for several weeks under the young King. At last, however, he was dismissed, with the noted *St. Florentin*, Duc *de la Vrillière*, who had been minister of the *lettres de cachet* for fifty years.

Louis XVI. succeeded to the crown, loaded by his grandfather's mismanagement with a thousand difficulties, with which his youth and inexperience ill fitted him to contend. Knowing the great regard entertained by his father, the Dauphin, for Count *Du May*, one of his first acts was to invite that nobleman to take on himself the charge of the war-ministry. *Du May* accepted the office; and, had his life been longer spared, he might have been the instrument of preventing many of the future errors of this weak but well-meaning prince. Possessed of extensive information and of stubborn integrity, no man was ever more inimical to intrigue: but his death took place when he had been only fifteen months in office. He found the army rather below the ordinary peace-establishment, and composed of 130,000 foot, with only 20,000 horse. The mode of raising men now was either by draft from the militia, or by voluntary enlistment, with a bounty of thirty shillings. The age of sixteen was the lowest for recruits. The abuse of giving military titles without actual commands had been carried to a great length; and altogether the military expenditure was not short of four millions sterling *per annum*. It was at this time that the celebrated *Turgot* was minister of finance. After having diffused comfort and satisfaction around him in his provincial government, the Limousin, he consented to become minister, on two express conditions; the first, that of stopping the ruinous practice of supplying the annual deficiency by loans; the second, of introducing retrenchment after retrenchment, till he brought the expence to a level with the revenue. His misfortune lay in too much attention to detail, and in too great severity of manner; drawbacks which made *Mirabeau* say of him, "he does good, but he does it the wrong way." His popularity was soon increased by a display of integrity, which in France was regarded as a wonder. The farmers-general were in the habit of paying large gratuities to the ministers on the renewal of their leases; and one of these, fixed by the Abbé *Terrai* at a hundred thousand crowns, becoming payable after *Turgot* came into office, he distributed the money on the same day to the poor of the capital. Emboldened by a consciousness of his patriotism, *Turgot* proceeded too rapidly in the progress of reform; removing from office a number of first clerks, and refusing them the allowance which was customary on retirement. He thus not only deprived himself of their official experience, but made them his enemies by the suspicions which he openly expressed of them. Their successors in office were as yet inexperienced, when a pressure, from a variety of causes, brought on an immoderate rise in provisions, and threatened an insurrection around Paris. The disorder having assumed an alarming aspect, *Turgot* was the only one of the ministers who remained undismayed. The ministry at war was then conferred on him, in order that he might make the necessary disposition of the armed forces; and in the scenes which ensued, (May 1775,) he displayed a mixture of energy and clemency which procured for him immortal honour, and formed a striking contrast to the wavering counsels of his sovereign in future years.

No sooner was the insurrection suppressed, than *Turgot* divested himself of his dictatorial attributes, and returned to his former department, the ministry of finance. In regard to the military service, his chief improvement was that of the manufacture of gunpowder. Before his time, individuals had a permanent contract for the supply of gun-powder to government, accompanied with a right to search for salt-petre in private houses, or wherever they could find it. This proceeding was productive of incalculable vexation; and the quality of the powder, moreover, was often bad. *Turgot* remedied both these disadvantages, by establishing a government-manufacture, planned with the greatest care, and directed in part by the celebrated *Lavoisier*.

The successor of *Du May* in the war-ministry was Lieutenant General *St. Germain*, an officer advanced in years, whose history was remarkable. Born in a private station, and having entered early into the cavalry, he had been obliged, by the consequences of an unfortunate quarrel, to go into foreign service; where, in the course of years, he attained a degree of distinction which induced the French government to recall him to his country, with the rank of Colonel. After having remained a considerable time in the service, a second quarrel, or rather the disdainful behaviour of the nobility, drove him in 1759 again into exile. Having intrusted his property to a Hamburgh merchant, the whole was lost by the failure of his friend; and *St. Germain* once more sought his native frontier, and retired to pass his days in poverty in Alsace. The German regiments in the French service, hearing of his distress, agreed among themselves to make a reserve of pay, till they should be able to settle on their old commander an annual pension of 600l. sterling. The French minister, *Du May*, apprized of this generous intention, wrote to the German officers that it was for the public to undertake the recompence of *St. Germain's* services, and followed up this notice with a grant of 400l. a year. *St. Germain* had not yet entered on the receipt of his allowance, and was at work, like another Cincinnatus, in his garden, when he received a letter announcing the death of his benefactor, and his own nomination to succeed him. From the moment of his entrance on office, the nobility affected the greatest complaisance to this plebeian minister; but were not long in combining against his projects of reform. *St. Germain* was, like *Turgot*, much too candid and blunt for a court. Making no secret of his intended alterations and retrenchments, the persons likely to be affected by them had an opportunity of gaining, beforehand, the King's ear, and of suggesting to him plans tending apparently to the same object, but operating very differently on their personal interests. The consequence was that, whenever *St. Germain* submitted in a private conference a project of reform, Louis was accustomed to reply, "I have a still better plan," and would put into his hands a paper prepared by some artful and insidious courtiers. The minister was obliged to acquiesce, and his name is accordingly subscribed to a variety of regulations which are apparently very inconsistent with each other. *St. Germain* succeeded, however, in making an addition to the efficient force of the army, and in abolishing a number of sinecure places. He also discouraged the union of military and diplomatic offices, and put a stop to the abuse of conferring rank where no military service had been performed. He was proceeding, also, in retrenching the allowances of officers of this description, when the King, thinking that he was going on too fast, obliged him to add a second colonelcy to each regiment; a measure so much at variance with reform, as to throw universal ridicule on the minister. *St. Germain* ventured to propose the new-modelling of the guards, and other military appendages of royalty: but, on proposing his plan to the King, he was obliged to pass over the corps which were commanded by persons of interest; and, as these were the most expensive to the public, the absurdity of economizing by reducing the cheap corps afforded a new source of derision. In matters which related to the treatment of the soldiers, the minister was left more at liberty.

With regard to desertion, he lessened the severity of the punishment, granting forgiveness to those who should resume service before the end of six days, and making the definitive sentence *labour in irons* instead of *death*. In another respect, he was less successful;—a small addition which he made to the soldier's pay being accounted an inadequate recompence for the curtailment of their chance of promotion, by the reduction of subaltern appointments.

The great blow to his popularity was, however, the introduction of corporeal punishment, not by the barbarous practice of flogging, which has always been repelled in the French army, but by permitting the officers to strike with the flat sabre. Though the odium of this innovation attached to *St. Germain*, the present author alleges that it derived its origin from another source: meaning, no doubt, the German officers who were admitted to the Queen's counsels.

St. Germain resisted the contradictions of the courtiers with more patience than his colleagues, *Turgot* and *Malesherbes*. The latter,—the same whom we have seen come forwards in the midst of Jacobin horrors, to plead for the life of his sovereign,—had been appointed minister of *lettres de cachet*, and in this invidious station found means to effect in a few months enough of good to efface the remembrance of ages of oppression. The state-prisons were opened, and the minister never consented to issue an order for confinement without a clear and specified reason. Holding at the same time the station of minister of the household, he saw with indignation the scenes of waste and dishonesty which were displayed: but, in attempting to accomplish a reform, he was exposed to the same obloquy and eventually to the same loss of royal favour as his colleagues, *Turgot* and *St. Germain*. The latter gave in his resignation (October, 1777,) after having been two years in office, and retired with the reputation of greater fitness for a station in active service than in the cabinet.

The American war having now broken out, a man of energy was necessary in the ministerial department; yet Louis XVI. went no farther than the Prince of *Montbarrey*, who had for some time been *St. Germain*'s assistant. *Montbarrey* was fonder of pleasure than of business, confined his interest to the benefit of his own family, and took especial care to offend nobody by reforms. Resting his influence at court on Madame *de Maurepas*, he found it necessary to resign, in December 1780, when that influence failed him; and he was succeeded by the Marquis *de Segur*, who remained in office during seven years. We should do the Marquis injustice, says M. AUDOUIN, were we to regard him as the prime mover of the obnoxious acts passed during his ministry. The most remarkable of these had reference to officers in the service who had been born in a private station. It is difficult for us in this country to conceive how completely rank and power were absorbed in France by the *noblesse*. Military promotions were divided into two classes;—one, open to the first nobility only, consisted of colonelcies, provincial governments, generalships, and ended in the staff of Marshal of France; while the other, the object of the lesser nobility, terminated in a lieutenant-colonelcy, a royal lieutenancy, and occasionally, by great good luck, in the station (still subordinate) of *maréchal de camp*. In the former, the number of candidates was almost as limited as the number of appointments: but the latter being the objects of all the minor nobility, the sollicitations for vacancies surpassed all calculation. A great number of men of family were unable during life to rise above the rank of captain, while others were accounted particularly fortunate if they succeeded in becoming majors.—In speaking, however, of the French nobility, it is proper to remind our readers that those of the second rank amounted to many thousands, and should, according to our ideas, be put on a level with genteel families in England out of trade. As to the sons of farmers and persons in trade, the great object of every family that could afford it was to withdraw from the service any youth belonging to them who had entered it; and the non-commissioned officers, in consequence, generally consisted of men who remained in the service because they could do nothing else. Of these, one in a hundred might reach the rank of adjutant or ensign; and a still smaller proportion might attain that of lieutenant. The difficulty of promotion for the *tiers état* being less in the light troops and the *gens d'armes*, the influence of the nobility at court was such as to accomplish the systematic neglect of the former, and the extinction of the latter. The rank of assistant major being sometimes bestowed on plebeian candidates, it was abolished *in toto*; and, to give a finishing blow to their hopes, a regulation was issued, in May 1781, to exclude wholly from the rank of officers those who could not shew four degrees of nobility. Is it possible for us to conceive a greater instance of infatuation?—at a time, too, when the court of France had sent its troops to co-operate in forming a free government in America? No doubt can be entertained, that this obnoxious edict was one of the chief causes of the disaffection of the troops at the time of the Revolution.

In treating of the history of military music, M. AUDOUIN makes some curious observations. The overpowering noise of artillery having banished from modern battles the shouts and warlike songs of former ages, it became necessary to substitute a louder music, and the drum and kettle-drum were accordingly introduced. The latter was borrowed from the Saracens, and has been adopted into European armies only during the last two centuries; having been first used by the Germans, and taken from them by the French. The contrary feeling of the Swiss and the Irish regiments in the French service, with regard to music, was remarkable. The former could not hear, without great emotion, any music which revived the recollection of their native land; while the latter, more willing exiles, and indignant at the government which excluded them from a participation in the honours of their countrymen, were accustomed to march to the sound of their national tunes without any other sensation than that of increased ardour in their military duty.—The number of foreign regiments in the French service was twenty-three; consisting of eleven Swiss, eight German, three Irish, and one from the county of Liege.

One of the most commendable characteristics of this book is the anxiety which is steadily expressed by the author for the preservation of the health of the soldiers. He exclaims loudly against the neglect with which the army-surgeons were treated by government, and maintains that no class of men had stronger claims on public favour than the hospital-surgeons. This opinion is supported by powerful documents. M. *Coste*, first physician to the army before the Revolution, shewed, in a memorial presented to Louis XVI., that the proportion of deaths was much smaller in the military than in the civil hospitals of France; and the Academy of Sciences at Paris, in a comparison made between the deaths of French prisoners in England and of English prisoners in France, declared that in the latter they were only one in forty-two, while in the former they were one in twenty-five. The contrast is still greater with regard to continental nations. Talk with a wounded Frenchman who has been made a prisoner by the enemy, and he will exclaim, "How much I regretted the want of our hospitals!" while the prisoners of other countries are ready to acknowlege that it is to French hospitals and French surgeons that they owe the preservation of life. During the ministry of Marshal *de Ségur*, an anecdote, indicative of singular disinterestedness, occurred in the management of the hospitals. One of his friends took occasion to speak to him of the merit of a young physician in the hospital of *Condé*; representing that he had, for several years, done the duty of the chief physician, who was aged and infirm. "And has he not," asked the Marshal, "made application either for the place or for a gratuity?" "So far from it, that he goes on purposely in obscurity, from an apprehension of injuring the interest of the old man, whom he loves as a father." The Marshal, affected with this example of kindness, sent the young man a handsome gratuity, and transmitted it, to prevent all uneasiness or distrust, through the hands of his venerable friend.—Another example, equally remarkable, had been exhibited some time before in a quarter in which it was least to be expected. *Turgot* was followed in the finance-department by *Clugny*, who died in office, and was succeeded by *Taboureau*, a modest and generous character, who, without hesitation, acknowleged that the duty was too hard for him, and needed the co-operation of an assistant. He requested to have *Necker* joined with him, under the title of counsellor of finance; and after having had the courage to confess his inadequacy to the whole charge, he went farther, and declared that his assistant was superior to himself. He extolled *Necker's* industry and talents; and, pronouncing him intitled to the first rank in the department, he afforded the singular example of resigning it in his favour, and succeeding him in the second.

Such was the extraordinary introduction of *Necker* into public life. M. AUDOUIN seems perfectly aware of his inferiority to *Turgot*, and has no hesitation in censuring his conduct in some points, while in others he appears to have pleasure in praising him. The discretion shewn by *Necker* at the time of his abrupt dismission by Louis, in the beginning of the tumults of 1789, deserves to be particularly mentioned. On the 11th July, at eleven o'clock in the morning, *Necker* received a *lettre de cachet* containing his dismission from all his offices, with orders to quit the territory of France without delay; and recommending, above all things, secrecy and dispatch. Had this been known to the National Assembly, no doubt a very strong opposition to his removal would have been made: but *Necker* avoided the least mention of it, even in his family. He entertained some guests at dinner; and, on stepping into his carriage, as if to go to an evening-party, he proceeded to fulfil the orders of his sovereign, and had nearly reached Brussels before his departure was known at Versailles. He was destined to remain only a few days in exile; the determined spirit shewn by the Parisians on the 14th July overset the counter-revolutionary projects; and Louis and the National Assembly lost no time in inviting *Necker's* return, declaring that "the king, the nation, and its representatives, all expected him back."

Ségur was succeeded in the war-department in 1787 by the Count *de Brienne*, lieutenant general, and brother of the prime minister; a person of acknowleged merit as an officer, but inexperienced in the details of administration. Aware of his incapacity, he procured the institution of a council to assist him, an expedient which is generally found as useless in the cabinet as in the field: individual responsibility being the only effectual source of efficiency, either in military or in other appointments. The Count *de Brienne* remained in office some time after the retirement of his brother, but withdrew in November 1780, and was succeeded by the Count *de Puységur*.—We are now approaching to the æra of the Revolution; and *Puységur* continued in office only eight months. Such was at this juncture the pressure of political affairs, that scarcely any time remained for army-regulations; and accordingly the ministry of *Puységur* is marked by little else than directions for the supply of forage and provisions: a fact, however, which implies no derogation from his knowlege of the service, which was very extensive, though unfortunately of little avail under the peculiar circumstances of his ministry. These details, and the memorable events of the 14th July, occupy the chief part of M. Audouin's fourth volume; to a length, indeed, which greatly exceeds the proper limits of a military work. Yet this part of the book will be found possessed of interest, arising, no doubt, more from the nature of the events than from the mode of narration. The style continues as bad as before, though here and there we meet with an exception from the general deficiency. We particularly remarked the occasion on which Louis XVI., finding, after the defection of his troops and the capture of the Bastille, that resistance was useless, adopted the resolution most congenial to his personal feelings, and repaired to the National Assembly to announce the dismission of his obnoxious counsellors. He communicated the orders given for the removal of the troops to a distance from the capital, and his intention of repairing in person to Paris on the 17th; a step which he invited the assembly to announce. A deputation was immediately sent to the Hotel de Ville, headed by the eloquent *Lally Tolendal*; who, on his return, expressed himself thus: "I found the hall filled by citizens of all classes, and the neighbouring square thronged with the people. I said, "Citizens, the honour of the French name is now at stake — would you not rather suffer a thousand deaths than be the cause of tarnishing it?" They answered me by declaring their unanimous assent. When I added that they should indeed be free, that the King had promised it, that he had come to throw himself into our arms, that he put his trust in the citizens, and had sent away the soldiers, they interrupted me with reiterated cries of "*long live the King!*" We come, said I, to offer you peace on the part of the King and of the National Assembly. — All repeated with transport, "*Peace, Peace!*" When I added, "You love your wives, your children, your King, your country," a thousand voices shouted "*Yes, Yes!*" I then ventured to go farther, and asked, "Shall there not be now an end to civil discord? to proscriptions? shall not the law alone be left to act?" and I was answered by an universal shout of "*Peace, Peace,* and *no more proscriptions!*"

In a political work of such length, the affairs of England are necessarily introduced on various occasions: but the author knows just as much about them as the majority of his countrymen, and falls into a number of odd mistakes. Like M. *de Montgaillard* and other Frenchmen, he has a magnificent idea of the wealth of our India-Company. Lord North, he observes, (Vol. III. p. 407.) was in their pay, and even "*le roi Georges*" had long been tributary to them. 'Very little was wanting,' says the author, 'to complete the triumph of these sovereign-merchants, and make them as absolute in America as in India. This was to be accomplished through the medium of bills *demanded by the King, and obtained by the minister*: — but the energy of the colonies deranged the project; they unanimously refused the payment of the tax on tea.' The errors in English orthography are not less amusing than the misconceptions of our constitution. We are told of the party of the *Wigts*, of the nautical talents of Lord *Sandwick*, of the oratory of *Edmond Burcke*, and of the patriotism of Lord *Chatam*, better known as the illustrious commoner, *Williams Pitt*. It was a favourite plan of Abbé *Terrai*, says M. AUDOUIN, to remove the pictures from the gallery of the Louvre, and to make it into a winter *Wauxhall*. We have been entertained, likewise, with the author's partiality to the profession with which he is himself connected: 'There can be no doubt,' he says, 'that of all classes in society, the military is the most respectable.' Like many other Frenchmen, also, he complains of our endless wars with his country, and of our eagerness to stir up the Continent against it. — Though politics are often introduced into this work, the author's views appear to be very superficial. Among other strange notions, he is never an advocate for a sovereign employing a prime minister, but thinks that the general direction of affairs should remain exclusively with the head of the state; as if it were a matter of course that all sovereigns were competent to such a task. A wish to depreciate the Bourbons is apparent throughout the book, and derives but too much support from their history; particularly from the domineering habits of Louis XIV., to whose prodigal waste of blood and treasure the writer ascribes the distress of France for so many years after that monarch's death.

M. AUDOUIN is already known as the author of some publications, particularly one on "Maritime Commerce *." He seems to be infected with the *cacoëthes scribendi*, and is by no means slow in promising farther contributions to the world. One of his proposed works is intended to treat "on Military Recompences," and another on the "Writers of French History." Publish when he may, we hope that he will shew more attention to the rules of composition in his future than he has manifested in the present work. In the volumes before us, he appears to have gone on without any previous method, and to write on the topic that occurs, whatever it may be, till he has exhausted it, without considering how many other things have a claim to a share of his attention. Hence his long-winded details about *Louvois*, about *Ségur*, about the army-uniforms, &c. Sometimes, indeed, an anecdote is introduced, and affords a pleasant contrast to the rest of the book. The history of *Fischer*, (Vol. III. p. 200.) a noted partisan on the side of the French in the *German* war of 1756, is remarkable; as well as the exploits of *Mardrin*, the celebrated robber in the eastern frontier of France. — We have already taken occasion to mention the efforts made by the Abbé *Terrai*, and other unworthy ministers of Louis XV., to remain in office after that king's death. Their fall, however, was unavoidable, and it took place accordingly on St. Bartholomew's day, an epoch unhappily too notorious in French history. When some person remarked to the Spanish Ambassador, *Aranda*, that this was a cruel St. Bartholomew's for the ministers:— "At all events," replied his excellency, "you cannot call it the massacre of the innocents." — Few books stand more in need of such enlivening passages than this production of M. AUDOUIN. The importance of its subject has induced us to bestow considerable attention on it, but the view exhibited of it in our pages is probably all that an English reader will be desirous to take. It possesses little interest as a general treatise on military matters; and as a technical book on the French service, it is chiefly useful to persons on the other side of the Channel.

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* See Rev. Vol. xxxiv. N. S. p. 538.

ART. IX. *Histoire abrégée de la République de Venise*, &c.; *i.e.* An Abridged History of the Republic of Venice; by EUGENE LABAUME. 2 vols. 8vo. Paris. 1811. Imported by Deconchy. Price 1l. 4s.

VENETIAN history has been less studied in this country than we might have expected from the natural sympathies of mercantile opulence. In modern Europe, the earliest seat of eminent commercial prosperity, Venice preserved the remains of antient luxury and civilization, and revived them for the use of another world. Its foundation was due to the warehouse-keepers of Padua. The feluccas of the Adriatic can ascend the Brenta only after having deposited half their loading: stowage-rooms were therefore constructed on the Rialto, an island near the mouth of the Brenta, for the reception of such superfluous cargoes; and thus began the establishments which were destined to become the imperial Venice.

When Attila besieged and took Aquileia, many merchants fled, with such property as they could secure, to these magazines; of which the insular situation was inaccessible to the barbarian soldiery. This Aquileian colony occupied the hitherto unbuilt *Lido di Malamocco*, and, by carrying new habits of commerce and connection into the place, rapidly and visibly increased its importance. Arian refugees from Constantinople settled there under Theodoric.

Until the year 709, a parochial form of government had sufficed for the purposes of a very tolerant police; and each island elected its own overseers, who were called tribunes. In 709, however, it was judged necessary to combine the isles under one municipal constitution; and a charter of incorporation was obtained from the Emperor Leo, and approved by Pope John V. This charter instituted an elective doge, and the first individual elevated to that office was *Paul Luke Anafesto*, who resided in the Heraclean island.

From Pepin, the father of Charlemagne, some enlarged grant of jurisdiction was obtained for these doges, at the expence of the King of Lombardy; and, as this additional jurisdiction comprized a part of the shore or continent of Lombardy already called Venetiæ, from *vinna*, a name of the fishing-nets which were spred there to dry, the republic henceforth obtained the name of the Venetian, and its metropolis was called Venice.

With Ravenna and Thessalonica, with Constantinople and especially with Alexandria, the Venetians carried on a perpetual and profitable intercourse. Availing themselves of the anarchy produced by the Mohammedan conquests, they took under their protection many islands of the Archipelago, which the Greek Emperors had not maritime power enough to defend. During the crusade against Saladin, they were especially successful; they obtained 85,000 marks of silver for transporting the European armies; and they employed a portion of the soldiery in annexing the coast of Dalmatia to their own territory. Not only with the Mohammedan pirates they waged maritime wars, but also with the republic of Genoa; which, about the close of the fourteenth century, had conceded to the Venetians the empire of the Mediterranean sea. At length, the continental acquisitions of the Venetians began to excite the jealousy both of the Emperor of Germany and of the King of France; and the league of Cambray was formed, which terminated the progress of Venetian prosperity.

The advancement of navigation among the Portuguese opened a new route to the East Indies, and greatly diminished the traffic of Venice with Alexandria for oriental productions. In 1618, the conspiracy of Bedmar shook the interior constitution of the state, and introduced a mysterious system of *espial*, which abolished the liberal spirit of the preceding age. A Turkish war, which the senators prolonged without object or purpose, from 1641 to 1669, but merely for the patronage and perquisites to which the siege of Candia gave a pretext, completed the exhaustion of the country. During the last century, Venice was always the admiration of the traveller, but the pity of the statesman;—the glittering shell of a decayed prosperity. Its weakness was revealed, and its doom of desolation fixed, by the French conquest of the city in 1805.

"Thy baseless wealth dissolves in air away,
Like mists that melt before the morning ray:
No more on crowded mart, or busy street,
Friends meeting friends with cheerful hurry greet.
Sad on the ground thy princely merchants bend
Their altered looks, and evil days portend,
And fold their arms, and watch with anxious breast
The tempest blackening in the distant west.
Yes, thou must droop; thy Midas dream is o'er;
The golden tide of commerce leaves thy shore."
[See Mrs. Barbauld's poem, Rev. for April last.]

The history of Venice has been amply, if not happily, illustrated. About the year 1400, the doge *Andreas Dandolo* drew up the earliest extant chronicle of the republic; and *Justiniani*, who died in 1489, left a manuscript-treatise, *De Origine Urbis Venetiarum*, which was printed in 1492, and again in 1534. It was translated into Italian by *Domenichi*, and consists of fifteen books. — Sabellicus, in 1486, attempted a Latin abbreviation of preceding notices, which were progressively brought down to his own times, and obtained for him the situation of historiographer. *Scaliger* taxes him with partiality, and says that the money of the Venetians was the source of any historic knowlege that he possessed. — *Suazzasini*, *Bembo*, *Paruta*, *Morosini*, *Foscarini*, and *Nani*, continued these official annals; which have been collected in twelve quarto volumes, forming the ground-work of all subsequent narrations. These twelve quartos the Abbé *Laugier* turned into French, abridging them into twelve octavos, which appeared in 1758. His work is now deemed too prolix; and M. LABAUME undertakes to reduce it to a sixth part of its antient dimension. He dedicates the result of his toil to the Viceroy of Italy, *Eugene Napoleon*, and has provided an agreeable and sufficient account of this once celebrated commonwealth, with much neatness of compilation.

His first book treats of the origin of the Venetians. The parish-meetings of 709, which applied for a municipal constitution to the Emperor, are here described as an *Assemblée générale de la Nation:* the inefficiency of the tribunes is depicted as an *autorité tyrannique;* and the forms of the French Revolution are thus carried back into elementary society.

Book II. opens with the sway of the first doge, *Luke Anafeste,* a man of merit, who during twenty years guided the state with wisdom and justice. The history of the third doge, *Orso Hypato,* proves that the Greek Emperors claimed Venice, and willingly favoured the assertion of its independence on the Lombards, or other western sovereigns. The patriarch of Grado had episcopal jurisdiction in the town, and, having quarrelled in 800 with the doge, retired to the court of Charlemagne. This event brought on the attack of Venice by Pepin the son of Charlemagne, which was not successful, but which served to free the Venetians from being dependant on the eastern Emperors, who neither remonstrated against the attack nor lent aid to the defence of the city. *Angelo Participazio,* the tenth doge, commanded at this period, and deserved by his great qualities to be considered as the second founder of his country.

The twenty-third doge, *Orseolo,* who acceded in 976, merits notice for the instructive character of his administration. He imported from Constantinople artists in mosaic, and statue-founders, to decorate the church of Saint Mark, which had suffered from fire; and having wasted, like another Solomon, the whole revenue of his country on the embellishment of a temple, he retired into a monastery, and died nineteen years afterward. He was canonized by Pope Clement XII.

Book III. treats of the period between 991 and 1173, which contributed especially to the formation of the naval force of the republic. Some pirates had landed in Venice during a wedding, and carried off the bride and her jewels. Vessels were armed and sent after these Saracens; the Venetians recovered their Helen, and her necklace; they instituted an annual festival in honor of this maritime triumph; and this became the cause of a naval establishment, which enabled them to protect the commerce, not of their own citizens only, but of their neighbours. The sea-ports of Istria and Dalmatia then offered to recognize the sovereignty of Venice; and to subscribe towards the maintenance of its fleets, in order to have their trade protected by convoys, and their havens guarded by armed cruizers. Thus the eastern coast of the Adriatic became subject to the republic; and this military marine was made a source of emolument to the country, by letting it to the crusaders.

A remarkable miracle happened in 1084, during the reign of *Vital Falieri,* the thirty-second doge. The German Emperor

Henry IV. came to Venice, in order personally to worship the body of Saint Mark, which had been brought from Alexandria many ages before, and was now interred in the middle of the great church. In honor of so distinguished a pilgrim, it was judged necessary to remove the steps of the altar, to open the vault of the tomb, and to prepare for lifting up the lid of the granite coffin. A numerous clergy, splendidly habited, waited around the chasm, and endeavoured to diffuse with their tapers a distinct light through the catacomb: sacred music calmed the impatience of a vast assembled throng of curious nobility and pious beauty; while acolytes, by swinging their censers, endeavoured to keep open a narrow path through the crowd for the imperial votary. At length, the Doge and the Emperor arrived, attended by a stately retinue, and proceeded to kneel with devout humility on cushions which overhung the edge of the sepulchre. By forcible machinery, the ponderous lid of the coffin was now displaced: when lo! it was empty.—This disappointment, in an age of infidelity, would have appeared ludicrous: but, in an age of credulity, it would have been deemed ominous, if Saint Mark himself had not deigned to make his appearance alive on the altar, and to accompany the two sovereigns to a dinner, which awaited their re urn from church! The conversation of the saint was as edifying as his resurrection, and as brilliant as his glory; and, after the repast, he walked back into the coffin, and was again immured in a sepulchre which piety may violate no more.

Under the thirty-fourth doge, who was also of the *Falieri* family, a great fire laid Venice waste. The new buildings were executed in a more costly and solid manner; and this event, though ruinous to many, greatly contributed to the embellishment and grandeur of the city.

The fourth book comprizes a period extending from 1173 to 1311. The forty-first doge, *Henry Dandolo*, was chosen into that office notwithstanding his blindness, and executed it with the spirit and the prudence of a great statesman. M. LABAUME thus sums up his character: (Vol. I. p.135.)

'*Dandolo*, at the close of life, had to struggle with the court of Rome, which disputed his right of nominating the patriarch of Constantinople: but, adroitly bending to circumstances, he yielded a vain pre-eminence, by the concession of which his country might obtain more solid advantages. At length, this great man died in the city in which he had become so illustrious, at the age of ninety-seven, in the year 1205; leaving behind him that glory which is attached only to those extraordinary men whom nature produces after long intervals. To the last moment of his life, the vigor of his mind remained entire, and no weakness appeared to announce in him the weight of age or the approach of dissolution. All the Venetians bewailed him as a

father:

regretted him as a hero, who was at once the conqueror
ler of an empire; and as that one among all their doges
ated his country to the highest pitch of importance and

continued the sovereign office in the family of
ut this led the way to constitutional discontents.
y separated into distinct parties, democratic and
of which the former was headed by *Tiepolo*, and
Gradenigo: who, having finally prevailed, became
8, and in 1297 accomplished the purpose of his
depriving the plebeian class of the right of suffrage,
a new *golden book* of voters to be made out, in
he better sort, the independent housekeepers, were
he right of suffrage was rendered hereditary with
included in this registration; and the grand council
y them, being declared perpetual, became an au-
nger than the doge, who was henceforth to be
outh-piece.

tians had soon occasion to perceive how essential
llence in the class of gentlemen, that they should
ly exposed to plebeian conflict. A few families,
rmarried, could shortly dispose of all the offices of
e approbation of the people was become useless:

ormal institutions, and not the character of individual ministers, is the chief cause of public conduct. *First*; the *nobili* were numerous, and the majority of them poor: but they were all within reach of the highest dignities, and the inferior of to-day might be the superior of to-morrow. Hence, in order to superinduce an appearance of habitual equality, they enacted sumptuary laws, and forbad any other than black clothes in ceremony, or white dominos in undress, or gondolas unvarnished, ungilt, undecorated. These sumptuary laws, and the impossibility of employing carriages in the city, forced the superfluous wealth of the merchants to seek ostentation in building, and thus produced the architectural magnificence of Venice. — *Secondly*; the *nobili* were required to fit themselves both for the church and the bar; and, as the supple conscience of atheism could alone prepare them to take at command the oaths of ordination or those of the custom-house, it was fashionable among them to be followers of Pomponatius. Venetian atheism, however, having church-preferment for its object, was not, like French philosophy, the patron of illumination, but the ally of credulity. The ceremonies of superstition were performed with publicity, and despised only in private; and although the Venetian church repeatedly incurred, and received, the excommunications of the Pope with *more* than Protestant contempt, yet it never fell into heretical dissent.— *Thirdly*; the protracted celibacy and respectable destination of the numerous suitors for preferment, who were obliged to wait for the deaths of incumbent predecessors, favoured a laxity of sensual morality, a dissoluteness of practice, and a sollicitude for inoffensiveness, which are rarely united. Welcomers of libertinism, but not of impudence, the *casinos* of assignation at Venice offered a sofa, and a curtain, to every vice. The cautious profligacy of a Venetian *nobile* was indulged by an invisible police, which tolerated every enormity but indecorum; and which punished, not to be rid of guilt, but to prevent explosion.—*Fourthly*; the casualty of public office, its distribution by accidental allotment, and the long leisure of the expectant competitors, all tended to form a gambling spirit in the Venetian aristocracy. Our games of risk, such as EO, Faro, &c. are almost all of Venetian origin; and the successive swarms of sharpers, which that city has hived, are notorious.

Book V. extends from the year 1312 to 1400. It describes the ascendency of the *nobili*, and the wars with the patriarch of Aquileia, with Verona, and with Padua. The doge and historian, *Andrea Dandolo*, now flourishes. The conspiracy of *Falieri*,— the war of Hungary,—the revolt of the Candians,—the maritime conflicts with the Genoese, — the taking of Chioggia,—and the conquest of Corfu, are successively related; and the book terminates with a sketch of the relative situation of Europe, in which at this period Venice maintained a proud position.

The sixth book embraces a shorter, but a more incidental, not a more eventful, period; extending from 1400 to 1441. A foolish versatility of policy towards the petty Italian states, growing out of the intermarriages of their princes with powerful Venetian families, depicts, in all its perniciousness, the natural spirit of such a nobility. "What is my country to my family?" is the secret question which, in proportion as he prizes pedigree and aggrandizement, every member of such an aristocracy asks himself. Family-spirit,—*nepotism*, as the Italians called it,—ruined Venice, as it ruined Florence, and as it ruined Berne.

Volume II. opens with the seventh book. The author grows more sedulous in his detail as modern times approach, but is not more instructive, for the very reason that so many individuals are noticed whose conduct was unconnected with general principles. *Sforza* introduced the French into Italy, which was the great misfortune of Italian policy; and he is appreciated with patriotic tenderness, not with cosmopolite justice.

Book VIII. extends from 1468 to 1501. It involves much of the general history of Europe, which Mr. Roscoe has lately familiarized, and which we therefore deem it wholly needless to recapitulate. The acquisition of Cephalonia and of Cyprus, and the creation of the three Grand Inquisitors, whose conduct congealed all that remained of liberality, are the changes most peculiar to Venetian affairs.

The next book sketches the age of Leo X. Venice at this time possessed great wealth, and employed it with taste: palaces were built; and the saloons were adorned with works of the best living painters. Two folio volumes, intitled *Splendor Orbis Venetiarum*, contain the best description and delineation of its magnificence. *Lorenzo Crasso* published in 1666 two quarto volumes, containing the biographies of Venetians who were distinguished in statesmanship, in literature, or in art. Many Doges, three Popes, and many painters are recorded: but, among men of letters, the names of Bembo and Sarpi are the most conspicuous. The crop of fame grown amid all this opulence is on the whole paltry. Wealth has always its conditions to make with intellect, and too often purchases silence instead of patronizing sincerity.

The termination of this chapter gives a brilliant picture of the general state of culture in Italy, which renders still more remarkable the local dimness of Venice: (Vol. ii. p. 218.)

'No age has presented a more interesting epoch in the history of the human mind. Casting over it a hasty glance, we observe at Pavia *Jerome Cardanus*, who was extending the limits of algebra; and at Brescia, *Tartaglia,* who was resolving for the first time equations of the second degree, and subjecting the path of bombs to the laws of theory. At Mantua, *Castiglione* was composing his popular work the *Cortegiano;* and at Verona, *Fracastorius* was excelling as a physician, and as a Latin poet. *Ariosto,* whose songs are so seductive of every heart, was preparing the inspiration of *Tasso,* and the celebrity of the court of Ferrara, which was destined to possess them both. Florence, in the midst of Italy, recalled Athens to memory. Patronized by its merchant-princes, it nursed *Aretin, Jovius Guicciardini,* and *Machiavel* the great preceptor of kings. At Rome, the historian *Bembo* was secretary to Leo X.; *Trissino* was reviving the sublime art of Euripides and of Sophocles; and the annals of Tacitus, discovered in Westphalia by the exertions of *Beroald,* were restored to light, and destined again to instruct the world. *Michel Angelo,* in obedience to pontifical mandates, was elevating the cupola of St. Peter; which *Raphael,* yet a boy, was preparing to adorn.

'Adventurous navigators, in imitation of *Amerigo Vespucci,* were exploring regions unknown, and conferring vast empires on petty sovereigns; and the architects *Sansovino, Palladio,* and *Bramante,* were building palaces for all the princes of Italy. Charles V. was adding celebrity to the pencil of *Titian,* which was destined to render both of them illustrious; while *Leonardo da Vinci* was expiring in the arms of Francis I.; and *Raphael* among the Cardinals of Rome:—a spectacle glorious alike to the power which bestowed and to the talents which received such homage; in which princes are seen, by giving the signal for public admiration, to excite a general taste for the arts, and in which the glory of one age is preparing for that of its successor!'

The tenth book treats much of French interference in Italy, and carries on the history to 1570.—The eleventh proceeds to 1618, and includes the conspiracy of Bedmar.—The twelfth and concluding book conducts the history to the year 1797. This part of the work is very meagre in its details, and exhibits a scantiness of materials which is indeed to be referred to the paucity of native historians, but is not thus entirely to be excused. The hundredth doge acceded in 1654, which gives an average reign of about ten years to each doge. A concise enumeration of the subsequent sovereigns continues the chronicle, not the narrative, to the period at which the French, by the aid of a democratic party, obtained footing in Venice. The treaty of Campo-formio gave the town to Austria; and a subsequent treaty restored it to France. How changed from the Venice of *Sannazarius!*

"*Viderat Adriacis Venetam Neptunus in undis*
Stare urbem, et toto dicere jura mari."

Venice

s long ceased to be the centre of an active com-
ring the last century, it subsisted as the metropolis
tion of Lombardy : but this source of income and
is now dry. As a military station, it has no value;
bably destined to crumble slowly back into a silent
of departed opulence. The talismanic ring is
ch made Venice the queen of the Adriatic. It
assemble, during its henceforth melancholy car-
igitives from conquest, the victims of confiscation,
s of disgrace, the starvelings of bankruptcy, and
mous refugees of political persecution. It may
arious patients of disappointment a quiet hospital
l stately lodgings, adapted at once to hide and to
nisery of privation and the pangs of remembered
It may also become the darling monastery of
n revolution has harshly sentenced to retirement.
resemble those islands of Madrepore, which in-
ects built out of the the deep, whose weeds were
iose pebbles were pearl : but which, under the tread
n, soon crumble into sterile shoals, and serve only
ie famishing despondence of such as escape ship-

world. The general tendency of his poetical pieces on public matters gave strength to this erroneous notion; and the curious circumstance of his never publishing any *collection* of his works, during a long life, still farther propagated the error: — but M. *Ponce Denis* (*Ecouchard*) Le Brun was born at Paris so far back as the year 1729. His father was attached to the service of the Prince of *Conti.* Whatever the nature of his employment may have been, (which little affects the fame of his son,) he was greatly esteemed by this Prince; and it was at the antient *Hotel Conti*, which occupied, on the Key of the *Quatres Nations*, the site of the present *Hotel des Monnaies*, that Le Brun received his birth. His poetical turn, and the penetration and sprightliness of his genius, manifested themselves at a very early period; and being sent to the *College Mazarin*, he there passed through his studies in the most brilliant manner. Some of the principal events of his life, and the chief features of his poetical character, may be clearly and briefly collected from the following free translation of the funeral eulogy which was pronounced on him (in the year 1807.) by M. *Chenier*, a distinguished member of the National Institute:

"We have lost a justly celebrated poet. Le Brun is no more. Various labours have distinguished his long career: but, although he has been eminently successful in several classes of verse, which would appear to be of the most opposite nature, yet it is on lyric poetry, the principal object of his studies, that his reputation will rest. The son of the great *Racine* (whose *élève* Le Brun had the happiness to become) transmitted to him the heir-loom of classical composition, and the language of that memorable æra in which Frenchmen boasted at once of genius and of taste. It was Le Brun who, while yet a young man, interested *Voltaire* in favour of the descendant of *Corneille.* The lyric poet did not appear unworthy to be the bond of connection between two great men. He dared to give the powers of speech to the classical shade of the father of the French drama; and the author of *Merope* listened to the voice of the author of the *Cid.* — An imitator of Pindar, Le Brun sang of "Enthusiasm" in inspired numbers. When the envious enemies of *Buffon* endeavoured to tarnish his renown, Le Brun avenged the eloquent philosopher, in an ode which will remain in our poetry as a monument of superior genius and of courageous friendship. Thus the name of this accomplished poet associated itself with the names of his illustrious contemporaries. Often elevated and sometimes ambitious in his style, searching for strong and not rejecting bold expressions, he sang of every subject that suggested sublime ideas—God—Nature—Liberty—Genius—Victory.

"Those numerous exploits, which for the last ten years have commanded the admiration of the world, re-animated the age of Le Brun. Just ready to expire, his melodious voice was yet equal to celebrate these wonders, the last and the greatest which it recorded. Posterity, that inflexible judge, will mark the qualities which distinguished Le

ll not conceal his defects. For us,—at the sight of this
ch his remains repose, but in which his glory is not bu-
ve we to do, in paying these last solemn duties to the
essor of *Malherbe* and of *Rousseau*, but to register our
oss, and our respect for his genius?"

etch, we have only to add that Le Brun expe-
than the ordinary vicissitudes of a poetical life;—
his unfortunate quarrel with his wife, after four-
f nuptial happiness *, he became a beggar in the
y intrusting all his little property to the noble house
—that, even in the society of the great before the
he maintained a steady independence and love of li-
t he continued to raise the voice of poetry through-
e of horrors which ensued, (a proof, at all events,
ble carelessness of temper, if not of versatility of
—and, finally, that *Bonaparte*, after several hand-
ies, settled on him a pension of six thousand francs
for the last few years of his life †.
enter on a review of the "*Chefs d'Œuvre*" of Le
yrical compositions. To these we shall devote our
on; since the funeral eulogy, above translated, appears
o fix the pillar of the author's reputation on this

are published in the order (or rather disorder) which have been the author's happy design. The consequence is that we scarcely know any modern "*corpus*" of lyric poetry which can vie with that before us, which is indeed "*animi plenum.*" Here are the grave and gay, the lively and severe, most pleasantly intermixed, yet carefully discriminated. The collection, in a word, (if we may venture so to express ourselves,) resembles that union of beauties which nature only presents; where, decided as she is in contrast, she is equally effective in the general harmony of colour. This is high commendation; and we proceed to substantiate its justice.

Our first selection shall be from the ode to *Buffon*[*]; of which the intention was to console the great subject of it under the calumnious attacks of his numerous enemies. The two concluding stanzas ever appeared to us singularly beautiful. We make no apology for now citing, or rather reciting, them:

'*Buffon, dès que rompant ses voiles,*
Et fugitive du cercueil,
De ces palais peuplés d'étoiles
Ton Ame aura franchi le seuil,
Du sein brillant de l'empyrée
Tu verras la France éplorée
T'offrir des honneurs immortels,
Et le Temps, vengeur légitime,
De l'Envie expier le crime,
Et l'enchaîner à tes autels.

'*Moi, sur cette rive déserte*
Et de talens et de vertus,
Je dirai, soupirant ma perte:
Illustre Ami, tu ne vis plus!
La Nature est veuve et muette!
Elle te pleure! et son Poëte
N'a plus d'elle que des regrets.
Ombre divine et tutélaire,
Cette Lyre qui t'a su plaire,
Je la suspends à tes cyprès.'

We are sorry to take notice of the lamentable specimen of the bathos, which is exhibited at the conclusion of the Ode on the Earthquake at Lisbon, in 1755. The general ideas and the general expressions of that ode are so truly grand and poetical, that it is with pain we remark the "lame and impotent conclusion:" — but "it must be so." Our praise would not be worth reception, if our censure were not worth regret.

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[*] This and several others of the pieces here printed have been long known to the world: yet many of Le Brun's published works are here omitted; and the greater portion of each of the present volumes is entirely new. They might have been largely increased, had not the editor deemed it his duty (a duty in the farther exercise of which *he was restrained by the bookseller*) to omit ode, elegy, epigram, or poem of any description, of which the *public principles*, or private personalities, appeared to him to require suppression.

> ' *Tu fus, Lisbonne; O sort barbare!*
> *Tu n'est plus que dans nos regrets!*'

Brava! This is the opening of the last stanza but one. — Observe the opening of the last:

> ' *Tel un Sapin,*' &c. &c.

Un Sapin! — an engulphed city compared to a fir-tree stricken by lightning! — but how is this bathos redeemed by the following tender *jeu d'esprit*, or *jeu d'amour*, if it pleases LE BRUN?

> ' Au Printemps.
>
> ' *O toi qui viens avec Zéphire*
> *Nous rendre les Jeux, les Amours,*
> *Les douces Nuits et les beaux Jours,*
> *Et qui ne me rends point Thémire;*
>
> ' *Fatal Printemps, avec Zéphire*
> *Ah! reprends les Jeux, les Amours,*
> *Les douces Nuits et les beaux Jours:*
> *Qu'en ferois-je, hélas! sans Thémire?*'

The 'Ode to *Voltaire*,' containing the defence and the recommendation of the descendant of *Corneille*, has some glorious passages: but, considered as a whole, its charm rests in the heart of the writer. He has, in fact, transferred his simple feeling of benevolence on this occasion, his "plain love of doing good," into his poetry.

In the ode on 'Enthusiasm,' we meet with several noble stanzas. The following is our favourite:

> ' *O Liberté! que tes Orages*
> *Ont de charmes pour les grands Cœurs:*
> *Ils ne craignent point ces Naufrages*
> *D'où leurs Noms s'élancent vainqueurs.*
> *Victime de ton beau délire,*
> *Dût mon sang arroser ma Lyre,*
> *Content, je mourrai dans tes bras!*
> *Par d'affreux Tyrans menacée,*
> *A-t-on vu la Muse d'Alcée*
> *Pâlir à l'aspect du Trépas?*'

The ode on the death of 'Lycoris' possesses much the same sort of merit and the same attractions as the "Monody" of Lord Lyttelton. Those only who can enter into a poet's feelings on the loss of a beloved wife can appreciate such productions; to all others, they must be coldly uninteresting at the best, and must appear hypocritical (or *hypocrenical!*) at the worst.

The 20th ode, 'on an illness of the author,' has the great attraction of being more free from express mythological reference than the generality of Le Brun's poetry. He is indeed too apt to mistake the *history* of the antient bards for their *inspiration*: "he is more classical than enough," — if we may so convey our meaning: — but the very opening stanza will represent this ode in no unfavourable light, will supersede (or, rather supply all that has been unsaid in) our panegyric, and will prove the author even of so slight a composition to be a man of genius:

> '*Je descends au sombre Rivage;*
> *Recevez mes adieux, Soleil, Muses, Amour!*
> *Toi! qui de ma pensée as le dernier hommage,*
> *Thémire! ah! je te perds: je perds plus que le Jour.*'

The 16th ode of book the 2d. '*sur un Rendezvous pendant l'Orage*,' ("*Speluncam Dido dux et Trojanus eandem deveniunt*,") reminds us forcibly of a certain fat and timid couple of lovers, who (as we have heard it related, or have somewhere read,) always went to bed in a thunder-storm. On such a "Celadon and Amelia," we have no other observation to make, than that Le Brun is not quite so successful as Thomson in his description of this extraordinary '*Rendezvous*.'

'*Ni Louvres, ni Prisons!*' says M. Le Brun in his ode on "The Golden Age," page 155.

> '*Assassiner les Rois, c'est blesser* les Dieux mêmes:
> *Ils sont, n'en doutez pas*, les Fils de Jupiter,'

says the same M. Le Brun, page 169. This inconsistency appears to us something like the due punishment inflicted on a man, when the *ghosts of his wholesale assertions* arise in judgment against his newly alarmed imagination: — but 'the poet of liberty,' in this ode, ('on the assassination of *Three Kings* in 1771,') not only breathes the most courtly strains of horror at the martyrdom of these 'royal sons of Jupiter,' but adds some stanzas which have really something of *a prophetic effect*, when applied to the present state of France:

> '*L'age d'or épargna des Rois à nos Ancêtres:*
> *Ils étaient réservés à nos Siècles d'airain.*
> *Mortels au cœur de bronze! il vous fallut des Maîtres:*
> *Vous étiez las d'avoir le Ciel pour Souverain.*
>
> '*Vous ne l'écoutiez pas, cette Voix prophétique*
> *Qui vous dit:* "*Arrêtez, Peuples; que faites-vous?*
> "*Quoi! vous-même, asservir au Pouvoir despotique*
> "*La fière Liberté dont vous fûtes jaloux!*

“ Oui, le Ciel va donner des Rois, dans sa colère,
“ A vos Cœurs endurcis, fatigués de bienfaits :
“ Vous ne méritiez plus les doux regards d'un Père :
“ Un Maître impérieux va punir vos forfaits.

“ Vos Moissons, vos Trésors, vos Enfans et vous-même,
“ Tout cesse d'être à vous, tout sera son butin.”
Vous ne l'écoutiez pas, cet Oracle suprême :
Par vous la Terre esclave a subi ce Destin.’

Had the ‘*Maître Impérieux*’ read this ode, when he signed the order for Le Brun's pension? — though, if he had, we presume that *conscious innocence* dictated some such reflection as “ Let the gall'd jade wince,” &c. &c.

While we censure this author for indulging in too close an imitation of his classical models, and for the too frequent introduction of scraps of mythology, we are perfectly aware that he occasionally adapts these allusions to his subject with much ingenuity. For instance, in the 16th ode of the 3d book, he laments his impetuosity in sending a letter of undeserved severity to his mistress; who, afflicted as she is, yet forgives his offence. The concluding lines of one of the stanzas are far from unpleasing:

‘ *Ah ! j'ai lancé le trait du malheureux Céphale,*
Mais Procris, en mourant, pardonne à son Epoux.’

Ode 5th. book 4th. ‘*A Fanni, sur un Baiser,*’ is a model for those amorous poetasters, who, not contented with “ making woful ballads to their mistress' eyebrow,” are guilty of a species of infidelity or of folly not easily pardoned by a parliament of love. Those rhymers, in a word, who “ kiss and tell,” or “ tell without kissing,” may here find food for meditation; and, if they chuse, for plagiarism. Le Brun himself seems to have had Sappho, rather than ‘Fanni,’ before his eyes in the composition. Have we not read of a heart, long ago, which was not only much in the same state (as myriads of hearts have been) with the subject of the following lines, but which told the tuneful tongue to betray its feeling in nearly the same expressions?

‘ *Il se trouble, il palpite encore,*
Il se plaît à se consumer,
Il desire, il craint, il adore,
Et tout conspire à l'enflammer.

‘ *Aux accens de ta voix mon ame est éperdue ;*
Mes regards inquiets brillent d'humides feux ;
Je rougis, je pâlis ; un voile est sur ma vue ;
Tous mes sens sont en proie au délire amoureux.’

This is more like Sappho's original, than the imitation of Ambrose Philipps. It is more vigorous, more natural, more Grecian *.

'*Le Débat de l'Amour et de la Raison*,' ode 2., book 5., is very *piquant*. Indeed, we think that Le Brun is happiest in the convivial, the amorous, and the plaintive classes of lyric poetry. His sublimities, although often successful, are too often laboured.

> '*Amour me dit, " Aime Lucile."*
> *Raison me dit, " Ne l'aime pas."*
> *Amour ! Raison ! couple indocile,*
> *Aurez-vous d'éternels débats ?* &c.
>
> '*Ainsi, mon ame est balancée,*
> *Entre l'Amour et la Raison,*
> *Et ma frêle barque est poussée*
> *Par le Zephir et l'Aquilon,*' &c. &c. &c.'

In the '*Chant du Banquet Républicain, après la Bataille de Marengo, et la Signature de la Paix*,' ode 22., book 6., (notwithstanding the seductive ideas excited by the second division of the subject, '*la Signature de la Paix !*') we cannot be expected to take much interest. It is, however, we acknowlege, in spite of our patriotism, a spirited effusion; and we heartily wish that we could now exclaim, on this side of the Channel,

> '*Buvons, buvons, à la Victoire !*
> La Victoire a conquis la Paix.'

We were pleased with the '*Chant d'un Philantrope, pendant les Horreurs de l'Anarchie*;' ode 7., book 6. If the writer COULD sing during the detestable atrocities of the Revolution, we rejoice, for the sake of humanity, that his strains were of such a nature.

> '*Prends les ailes de la Colombe* †,
> *Prends, disais-je a mon ame, et fuis dans les Déserts !*
> *Ou que l'asile de la Tombe*
> *Nous sépare enfin des Pervers !*' &c. &c.

Then, after a frightful enumeration of the crimes of these sanguinary Atheists, too feebly called '*Pervers*,' the author returns with much effect, and a striking variation, to his original idea:

> '*Prends les ailes de la Colombe,*
> *O mon ame ! fuyons, fuyons dans les Déserts,*
> *Ou que l'asile de la Tombe* . . . . . .
> *Quoi ! nous céderions aux Pervers !*

---

[*] See the "Translations from the Greek Anthology," for a most animated English version of this record of antient enthusiasm.

[†] See, in our Review of Wheelwright's Poems, Number for March 1812, an instance of the happy expression of this sacred thought.

'Non, non ; c'est trahir la Patrie !
Fuyez-la pour jamais, jour de sang et de pleurs !
Que sa Gloire long-tems flétrie
Appelle et trouve des Vengeurs.'

We confess that we rather sympathize with this energetic sentiment. It has something of patriotic devotion in it; something of the "*Non ante revellar !*" &c. which accords with our opinions of civil duty. At all events, the '*Quoi! nous céderions,*' &c. considered as a specimen of art in composition,—as a forcible sequence to an aposiopesis,—cannot, we think, fail to insure some admiration.

The concluding ode of the first volume bears for its motto, "*Exegi Monumentum.*" In a letter in the 4th volume, Le Brun makes some apology for the apparent arrogance of applying to his own works the justifiable boast of Horace: but still (although we admire the nerve of this production,) we do not like any modern author to say of himself,

'Grace à la Muse qui m'inspire,
Il est fini, ce monument
Que jamais ne pourront détruire
Le Fer ni le Flot écumant,
Le Ciel même,' &c. &c. &c.

The fairest portion of this 'Monument' to the fame of the author is, we think, the charming and tender ode, (2d., book 6th.) intitled '*Mes Souvenirs, ou les deux Rives de la Seine.*' The Directory, it seems, had allotted to Le Brun a residence in the Louvre, ("*ni* Louvre, *ni Prisons!*") according to the antient custom of receiving men of literature and science in that hospitable palace. Here every object that could most interest the eyes of the declining bard attracted them on each bank of his beloved river, and the record of his gratitude is worthy of its excitement. From these gentle and engaging *Recollections*, we must select some passages:

'Dans l'Asile de ma Vieillesse,
Un Sort heureux présente à mes regards contens
L'aspect des lieux où ma Jeunesse
Vit éclore ses doux Printemps.

'Paisible Nymphe de la Seine,
Que ton Onde me plaît ! que tes Bords me sont chers !
Ton Onde est pour moi l'Hypocrène,
Et tes Bords me sont l'Univers.

'Tu sembles de mes destinées
Réunir à la fois et partager le cours :
Là, couloient mes jeunes années ;
Ici coulent mes derniers jours.'

Pointing to the *College Mazarin*, where he was educated, the poet recounts his youthful sports with the most natural pleasure: but the character of the man breaks forth distinctly in the following stanzas. Not only his tone of freedom *, but his pardonable though high-flown vanity, and above all his devotion to love and beauty, are here conspicuous.

'Là, ma Jeunesse indépendante
Puisa tes premiers Feux, céleste Liberté!
Rome, Athène, à mon Ame ardente,
Prêtaient leurs Arts et leur fierté.

'Qu'aux premiers accens de la Gloire
Il palpita ce cœur, impatient du Prix!
Comme des Nymphes de Mémoire
Il devint pour jamais épris!

'Ceint de triomphantes Guirlandes,
Je crus franchir le Pinde et ses bords immortels;
De mes poétiques Offrandes,
Muses, je parai vos Autels.

'Mon Laurier conquit une Amante;
Vainqueur, mon jeune front plut aux yeux de Myrté:
Oh! combien la Gloire est charmante
Quand elle enflâme la Beauté!

'Ce premier sentiment de l'Ame
Laisse un long souvenir que rien ne peut user;
Et c'est dans la première flâme
Qu'est tout le Nectar du Baiser.

'Age aimant, âge d'innocence,
Age où le cœur jamais n'a de replis obscurs;
Ta pudeur feint peu la décence;
Tes goûts sont vrais; tes feux sont purs!

'Ainsi, quand la Vieillesse arrive,
Du long Fleuve des Ans je remonte le cours;
Et je retrouve sur la rive
L'âge des Jeux et des Amours.'

We have bestowed, according to our intention, so much time on the Odes of this bard, that we must be comparatively brief in our analysis of his three remaining volumes.

The second volume consists of Elegies, Epistles, and Miscellaneous Poems. In the first division, are some good translations or rather paraphrases from Tibullus; who was seemingly the favour favourite, and certainly the most congenial, master of the author, even when writing lyric poetry. To Pindar, indeed, he appears to have been a willing slave; though sometimes breaking his bondage in a splendid act of disloyalty: but to Tibullus he was a devoted friend as well as disciple.

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* As a proof of the genuine attachment which Le Brun felt for liberty, his editor tells us that M. *De Vaudreuil* (one of the earliest patrons of the poet) had often occasion to make an apology for his ardent *élève*, who in his recitations had expressed himself too boldly for the delicate ears of the court on subjects of government. He would say, in a gentle voice, to the titled circle,—"*Ces poëtes sont vraiment fous!—mais les beaux vers! les beaux vers!*" and then ask Le Brun for an elegy, or his poem of Psyche, which set every thing to rights again.

In the second division, we have some lively letters in verse; especially that which is intitled '*Sur la Bonne et la Mauvaise Plaisanterie*;' and that playful receipt to procure a sound sleep, which ends,

> ——— '*aux inévitables progrès*
> *Du Dieu dont* MARMONTEL *atteste la présence.*'

This is not the only instance in the book in which *Marmontel* is mentioned as the climax of an encouragement to somnolency, or in other terms of disrespect; and LE BRUN evidently was hostile to the fame of the long-esteemed author of "Moral Tales." Could he have felt that hostility, (whatever his private reasons might be,) had he read the "Memoirs of Marmontel?" We think, that delightful book must have forced any rival to admire the author.

The third division includes extracts from a poem in four cantos, called '*Les Veillées du Parnasse*.' This unfinished work presents us with Orpheus and Eurydice, Nisus and Euryalus, Hercules and Omphale, and Psyche, supposed to be related as stories, *by the God of Verse and the Muses*, in French heroic couplets. We are greatly pleased, though some of these thrice-told tales may fatigue the ear, with the fragment of a letter from LE BRUN to a friend on the last subject, that of Psyche. It thoroughly coincides with our own ideas of the grace and elegance manifested in that attractive specimen of antient invention, and irresistibly demands another tribute of admiration for Mrs. Tighe's beautiful poem. (see Rev. Vol. lxvi. p. 138.) After having noticed the coarse manner in which Apuleius has transmitted this Milesian Tale through the medium of the Latin, and censured even his favourite *La Fontaine* for his prosaic French version of it, LE BRUN observes; 'It would be no easy attempt to render the Tale of Psyche a really classical composition; and it is a treasure of delicacy and of sentiment which the spirit of genius will never cease to appreciate. To such a spirit, the tender, the ingenuous Psyche is eager to give delight. The withered heart and the degraded taste cannot be interested in her character.' We deem this quite *prophetic*, if we may again apply the epithet to the shrewd conjecture of a poet:—but, indeed, if we may speak of the noble play of "De Montfort" in the language of its encomiast, and describe the muse of tragedy as dejected by the cold reception of her "last best effort;" we are sure that we may say of "*Psyche*," (as we have lately seen her living again in all her natural beauty,) that the readers who do not delight in her revival, and who tolerate her dead contemporaries, are condemned by Le Brun's anticipating sentence, and rank under the wretched denomination of 'the withered heart, and the degraded taste.' How should we have regretted the interruption of the poetical labours of Le Brun on this sweet subject, which he has shewn himself well calculated to treat, had we not so charming a substitute in our native poem; nay so superior, although so similar, a mode of representing "Psyche!"

In this third division of the IId volume, we have also a poem intitled '*La Nature; ou le Bonheur Philosophique et Champêtre*,' containing fragments of four cantos, and some very pleasing verses throughout. Our limits forbid quotation: but we refer our readers to the poem with confidence; whether they chuse the canto of *Wisdom*, or of *Liberty*, or of *Genius*, or of *Love*.—The volume closes with some detached translations, from the first book of the Iliad, from the opening of the Georgics, from Theocritus, and from Tibullus; and with some 'Verses of Youth,' which have, as usual, more promise than perfection.

Volume III. contains *Six Books of Epigrams*: besides Poems on different occasions. Of the Epigrams, we can only say (and it is saying everything) that, although we by no means compare them, in any quality, to those of Martial, yet they fully deserve the well-known character which Martial has given to his own collection. We had made several marks for citation in this volume; which to many readers will probably be the most attractive part of the whole publication: but we must be contented with a few.

'Sur une Demoiselle qui avait fait un Drame et un Enfant.

'*Cette Muse, assez profane,*
A fait deux œuvres, dit-on,
L'une, en dépit d'Apollon;
L'autre, en dépit de Diane.'

'Sur le Docteur B***.

'*Il sait Pindare, il sait Homère,*
Il sait Aristote et Platon,
Moïse et Sanchoniaton;
Il sait même encore, dit on,
Parler grec, chinois, bas-breton:
Que ne sait-il plutôt.... se taire?'

'A une jolie femme qui moralisait.

'*Vous qui, mieux que défunt Caton,*
Prêchez la réforme à Cythère,
Ignorez-vous, jeune Glicère,
Que l'Amour s'endort au Sermon?

Des Jansénistes d'Idalie
A peine seroit-il goûté.
Jamais par bouche plus jolie
Grave Sermon ne fut dicté :
C'est bien dommage, en vérité,
Que vos yeux prêchent la folie.'

' Sur un poète bien ennuyeux et bien Athée.

' *Tout est matière, a dit ce lourd Poète ;*
Il ne veut pas que l'on croie à l'esprit :
Il a raison ; et sa preuve est complète,
Dès le moment qu'il parle ou qu'il écrit.'

The fourth volume comprizes the author's correspondence with *Voltaire ;* from whom we have those very interesting letters on the subject of his *protégée*, Mademoiselle *De Corneille*, which we have already mentioned. These letters do infinite honour to the heart of *Voltaire :* we cannot think that it is possible for any person to read them without emotion, or without improvement.—Here also are some letters from *Buffon*, from *D'Alembert*, *Helvetius*, *Thomas*, and *Palissot ;* in a word, here is a little bundle of epistles from no ordinary correspondents. They have not, perhaps, *all* the attractions either of novelty or of literary merit, considered as compositions, which a very sanguine reader might expect: but they will generally amuse, and frequently instruct.

The work concludes with an ' Essay on the Genius of the Ode,' a piece of animated and just criticism which could not have been written on such a subject by any but a poet: with some lively remarks on the *happy audacities* of the great *Corneille*, in his style of poetical expression; with a judicious and classical dissertation on the peculiar merits of Tibullus; with some trifles called 'Dreams,' &c., which might as well have been omitted; and with a fragment from a work of Le Brun, bearing the title of ' *La Wasprie*,' a name derived from the satirical appellation of " *Wasp*," which *Voltaire* had bestowed on *Fréron*. This fragment, also, we could have desired to remain unpublished; not that it is devoid of satirical merit, for, on the contrary, it overflows with gall, and has all the bitter excellence which Johnson so cordially attributes to Dryden's Mac Flecknoe: but " somewhat too much of this;" and, although *Fréron* appears, from several passages in the correspondence, (which passages we also wish had been suppressed,) to have deserved the dreadful scourging which he received, we yet should have been better pleased to hear no virulent strains of satire from the harp of conviviality, of love, and of poetical enthusiasm.

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